



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

NYPL RESEARCH LIBRARIES



3 3433 07136512 0

NEW

HISTORICAL
READERS

AN EAST HISTORY OF
ENGLAND by SARGENTON
SECOND COURSE

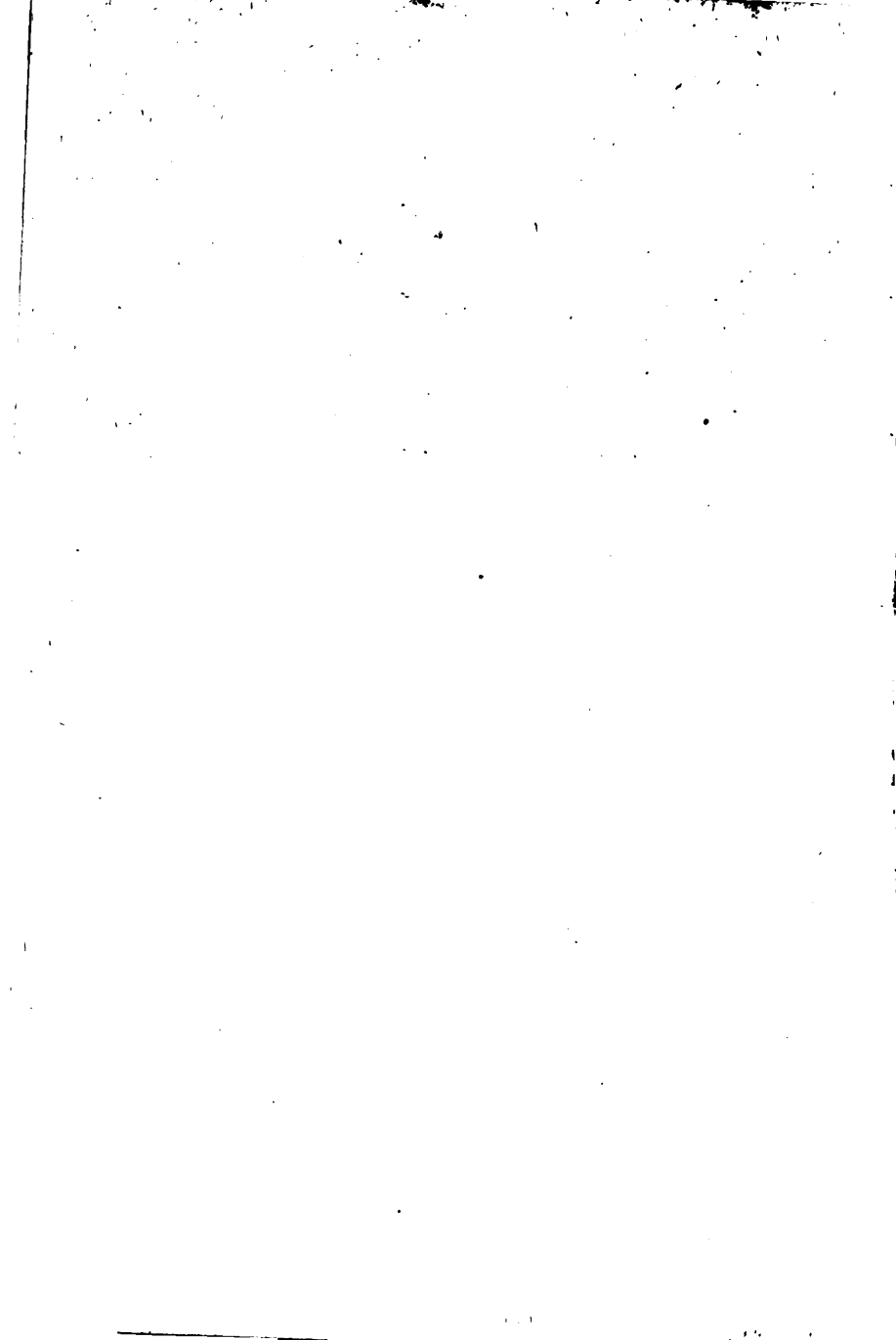
Standard
Book

History.

56
Mid
5x
7/
5

J. M.
1 Plate

Gardiner
CB



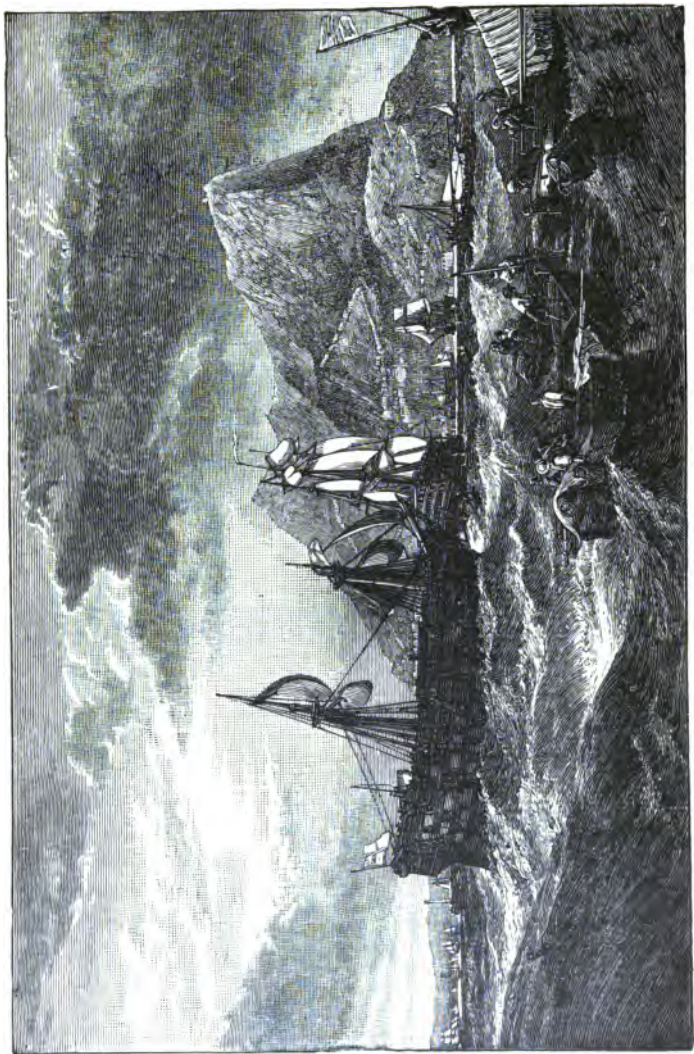
LONGMANS' NEW GEOGRAPHICAL READERS.

The special feature of this Series is the *Folding-out Maps* on vegetable vellum, which open out to face any page, and contain the names of all places mentioned in the Reading Lessons, and a Summary with Maps of all the Geography required for the Standard.

STANDARD I. Conversational Lessons on Plans. Crown 8vo.	s. d.
STANDARD II. The Definitions of Geography Explained	0 9
STANDARD III. The Geography of England and Wales. Crown 8vo. ...	1 3
STANDARD IV. Scotland, Ireland, British North America, Australia, New Zealand and Tasmania. Crown 8vo.	1 4
STANDARD IV. Course A. Physical and Political Geography of Scotland and Ireland, and of the United States of America. Crown 8vo.	1 6
STANDARD V. Europe: Latitude and Longitude, Day and Night, the Seasons, Climate. Crown 8vo.	1 6
STANDARD VI. The British Colonies and Dependencies, &c. Crown 8vo.	1 9
STANDARD VI. Asia, Africa, and America: Interchange of Productions, Climate. Crown 8vo.	1 9
STANDARD VII. The United States: Tides, Oceans, Currents. Crown 8vo.	1 9

LONGMANS' PICTORIAL GEOGRAPHICAL READERS.

BOOK I. With 8 Full-page Illustrations printed in Colours, and 60 Illustrations in Black and White. Crown 8vo.	s. d.
BOOK II. With 8 Full-page Illustrations printed in Colours, and 73 Illustrations in Black and White. Crown 8vo.	1 0
BOOK III. With 15 Full-page Illustrations and Maps printed in Colours, and 65 Illustrations in Black and White. Crown 8vo.	1 6
BOOK IV. (Alternative). With 8 Full-page Illustrations printed in Colours, 66 Illustrations in Black and White, 23 Plans and Maps. Crown 8vo.	1 6
BOOK IV. BRITISH ISLES. With 82 Illustrations and 49 Physical, Political, and Relief Maps and Diagrams. With Maps printed in Colours. Crown 8vo. ...	1 6
BRITISH EMPIRE. With 100 Illustrations and 17 Physical, Political, and Relief Maps. Crown 8vo.	1 8
EUROPE. With 52 Illustrations, 26 Physical, Political, and Relief Maps. Cr. 8vo.	1 6
AFRICA AND AUSTRALASIA. With 81 Illustrations, 26 Physical, Political, and Relief Maps. Crown 8vo.	1 8
AMERICA. With 64 Illustrations, 17 Physical, Political, and Relief Maps. Cr. 8vo.	1 8
ASIA. With 77 Illustrations, 8 Maps printed in Colours, 7 Physical, Political, and Relief Maps, and 12 Diagrams. Crown 8vo.	1 8



THE 'VICTORY' TOWED INTO GIBRALTAR. (*Stanfeld.*)

1000 RD
1/27 17
013



Longmans' New Historical Readers

AN EASY
HISTORY OF ENGLAND

SECOND COURSE

DEALING MORE ESPECIALLY WITH POLITICAL HISTORY

FOR

STANDARDS VI. & VII.

BY

S. R. GARDINER



NEW IMPRESSION

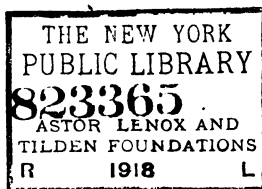
LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.

89 PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON

NEW YORK AND BOMBAY

1906

All rights reserved



WORLD WAR
1918
Y8A70L

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER	PAGE	CHAPTER	PAGE
1. Early England	7	19. The Protestants	87
2. The Coming of Augustine and the Coming of the Danes	13	20. The Catholic Reaction . . .	92
3. Dunstan and Canute . . .	18	21. The First Years of Eliza- beth	97
4. Edward the Confessor and Harold	22	22. The Struggle with Spain .	101
5. William the Conqueror . .	26	23. The Last Years of Eliza- beth	107
6. The Sons of the Con- queror	30	24. James I. and the House of Commons	113
7. Stephen and Henry II. . .	34	25. James I. and Spain. . . .	116
8. Richard I. and John . . .	39	26. The Duke of Buckingham	120
9. The First Years of Henry III.	45	27. Unparliamentary Govern- ment	125
10. The Barons' War	47	28. The Beginning of the Long Parliament	128
11. Edward I.	50	29. The Civil War	132
12. Scottish Independence and the French War	56	30. The Last Years of Charles I.	138
13. The Last Years of Edward III. and the Reign of Richard II.	60	31. The Commonwealth and Protectorate	143
14. The Houses of Lancaster and York	65	32. Clarendon's Ministry . . .	146
15. The Paston Family (I.) . .	70	33. Charles II. and Louis XIV.	148
16. " " " (II.)	74	34. The Last Years of Charles II.	150
17. The Establishment of the Tudor Monarchy	78	35. The Reign of James II. . .	153
18. The Separation of England from Rome	83	36. William and Mary	156
		37. William III.	159
		38. Anne	163
		39. George I.	167

vi HISTORY OF ENGLAND TREATED POLITICALLY

CHAPTER	PAGE	CHAPTER	PAGE
40. The Reign of George II. to the Death of Henry Pelham	170	48. Reign of William IV. . .	200
41. The Seven Years' War .	174	49. From the Accession of Victoria to the Repeal of the Corn Law . . .	202
42. The Downfall of the Whigs .	178	50. From the Repeal of the Corn Law to the Sup- pression of the Indian Mutiny	205
43. The American War . .	181	51. From the End of the In- dian Mutiny to the Pass- ing of the Second Re- form Act	209
44. From the End of the Ame- rican War to the French Revolution	184	52. Recent History	212
45. From the Beginning of the French Revolution to the Peace of Amiens .	187	53. The Close of a Century .	214
46. From the Peace of Amiens to the Battle of Wa- terloo	192	54. The Present Constitution (I.)	218
47. From the Battle of Water- loo to the death of George IV.	197	55. The Present Constitution (II.)	222

Appendix:—A Summary of the Events of English History for Home Lesson Work. Genealogical Tables and Lists of Sovereigns. Dates of the Most Important Events.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND

TREATED POLITICALLY.



CHAPTER I.

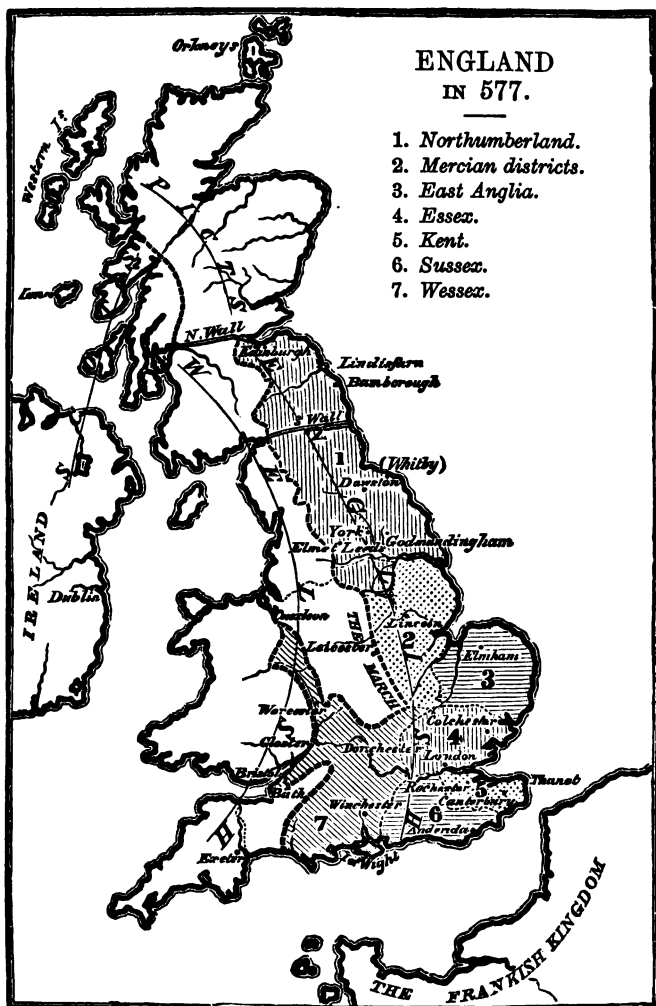
EARLY ENGLAND.

1. **The Romans in Britain.**—At one time the southern part of the island in which we live was inhabited by people from whom the Welsh of our own time are descended. In course of time it was conquered by the Romans, and became part of the Roman empire—which spread over a great part of Europe and over parts of Asia and Africa as well. The Romans taught the inhabitants of the country to build towns, and forced them to live at peace with one another. Many remains of buildings raised by the Romans are still to be seen. At Richborough in Kent, and at Pevensey in Sussex, are Roman fortresses. At Lincoln the road still passes under a Roman gateway, and at Bath are the foundations of the bathing establishment from which that city has its name. Wherever the word ‘street,’ or something like it, is part of the name of a place—as in Chester-le-Street, Stratton, or Stratford—it is known that there was once a Roman road. Wherever the name ends with

chester or caster, as in Winchester or Doncaster, it is known that there was once a Roman garrison.

2. The English Conquest.—About three hundred and fifty years after the Roman conquest was completed, the Romans abandoned Britain. The British, left to themselves, were plundered and slaughtered by tribes from Ireland and from that part of the country which is now known as Scotland. Their worst enemies were other tribes named Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, who were of German origin and came from the neighbourhood of the mouth of the Elbe. These fierce warriors, who began to arrive about 449, were not content with plunder. They settled on the land, slaying or driving out the people, or, in some parts, reducing them to slavery. Gradually the whole of the East and South Coast fell into their hands and, at a later time, the central districts were also conquered. The name Welsh was given by them to the Britons, a name by which they meant the speakers of a foreign language which they were unable to understand. For some time the Welsh remained unconquered in Cornwall, Wales, and Cumberland. The name given by the conquerors to the country in which they settled was England, which means the land of the Angles, who were the most numerous of the new comers, and from them, too, the whole people, in course of time, came to be known as English.

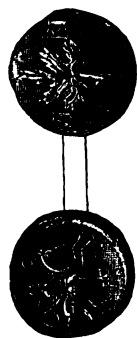
3. The Kings and the People.—The English were divided into many peoples which often made war upon one another, as well as upon the Welsh. The kings who ruled over them could not do as they pleased. They had no soldiers trained to fight whenever they were ordered



to do so, but the armies were made up of the freemen who during the greater part of the year were tilling their own fields or in some way minding their own business. When, therefore, a king wished to go to war he had to call the freemen together in a public meeting in order to ask them whether they wished to fight or no. If they refused he could not make them go. As, however, our ancestors were very fond of fighting, it is not likely that they very often refused.

4. The Treatment of Criminals.—These meetings of the people not only decided on peace or war, they also listened to the complaints of all who had been wronged. At one time if a man committed murder it was thought to be the duty of the nearest relation of the murdered man to kill him. Then the relations of the murderer who had been killed thought it their duty to kill the man who had killed the murderer. So the blood feud, as it was called, went on from generation to generation, some member of one family being always on the look-out to kill a member of the other. At last people grew tired of this constant slaughter, and a custom grew up that when a man was murdered the murderer should give some money to the relations of the murdered man to be freed from vengeance. If a thief was detected, he had to pay money in the same way. Those who had to pay, and those who had to receive the money came before the assembly of the people that there might be witnesses to the reconciliation between them.

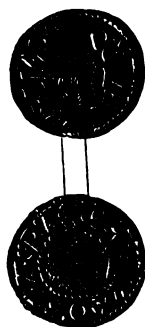
5. Compurgation and Ordeal.—When a man was accused of a crime and denied that he had committed it, it was difficult to find out the truth, because there were



A GOLD COIN OF A BRITISH CHIEF. ABOUT A.D. 43.



A LARGE BRASS COIN OF THE EMPEROR ANTONINUS PIUS
STRUCK A.D. 140-143. WITH FIGURE OF BRITANNIA.



A SILVER PENNY OF OFFA, KING OF MERCA.
A.D. 757-796.



A GOLD COIN OF THE EMPEROR SEVERUS.
STRUCK A.D. 201.



A COPPER COIN OF CONSTANTINE II. STRUCK AT
LONDON ABOUT A.D. 330.



A GOLD COIN OF A BRITISH CHIEF.

no lawyers or judges or police accustomed to find out what had really happened. An accused person was therefore asked if he could bring a number of honest men to swear that he was innocent, and if they would, he was allowed to go free. This was called *compurgation*, because the men joined in purging him or declaring him to be clear from the fault with which he was charged. If he could not find men to swear for him another chance was given him. He might try what was called the *ordeal*. He had to walk blindfold over red-hot ploughshares or to dip his hand into boiling water. If he missed the ploughshares, or if his hand did not appear to be hurt after three days, he was thought to be innocent, as only a Divine power could have preserved him from burning. Probably scarcely anybody ever got off in this way; but as only those tried it who had failed to find men who would swear for them, they would be considered bad characters because they were distrusted by their neighbours. For this reason nobody would feel much surprise if almost every accused person who tried the ordeal failed.

a-ban'-don-ed: went away from; left.

an'-ces-tor: one from whom a person has descended; forefather.

fort'-ress: a fortified or strong place; built so as to keep out invaders.

gar'-ri-son: the soldiers who hold a fortress or town.

Ro'-mans: at first this name was

given to the inhabitants of Rome; afterwards it was extended to the inhabitants of the whole Roman empire.

the Elbe: a river of Germany flowing into the North Sea.

ven'-geance: punishment inflicted in return for an injury or offence; revenge.

CHAPTER II.

THE COMING OF AUGUSTINE AND THE COMING OF THE DANES.

1. **The Conversion of England.**—The old English were heathens, who believed that slaying and fighting was most pleasing to the gods. In 598 Augustine, a Christian missionary sent by the Pope, or Bishop of Rome, landed in Kent. Ethelbert, the King of the men of Kent, who had married a Christian wife, welcomed him. From his teaching the men of Kent became Christians, and Augustine was the first Archbishop of Canterbury. Gradually, either through Roman missionaries or through others, all England became Christian. The missionaries were welcomed because they taught that it was better to be meek and forgiving than to be always fighting and quarrelling. Unhappily it is much easier to think it a good thing to be meek than to be really meek oneself. The mass of men did not really change their nature because they had learned to pray to Christ, Whose words spoken of His enemies, ‘Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do,’ were so hard to follow. It was easier to go to church and to repeat prayers than to cease to be quarrelsome.

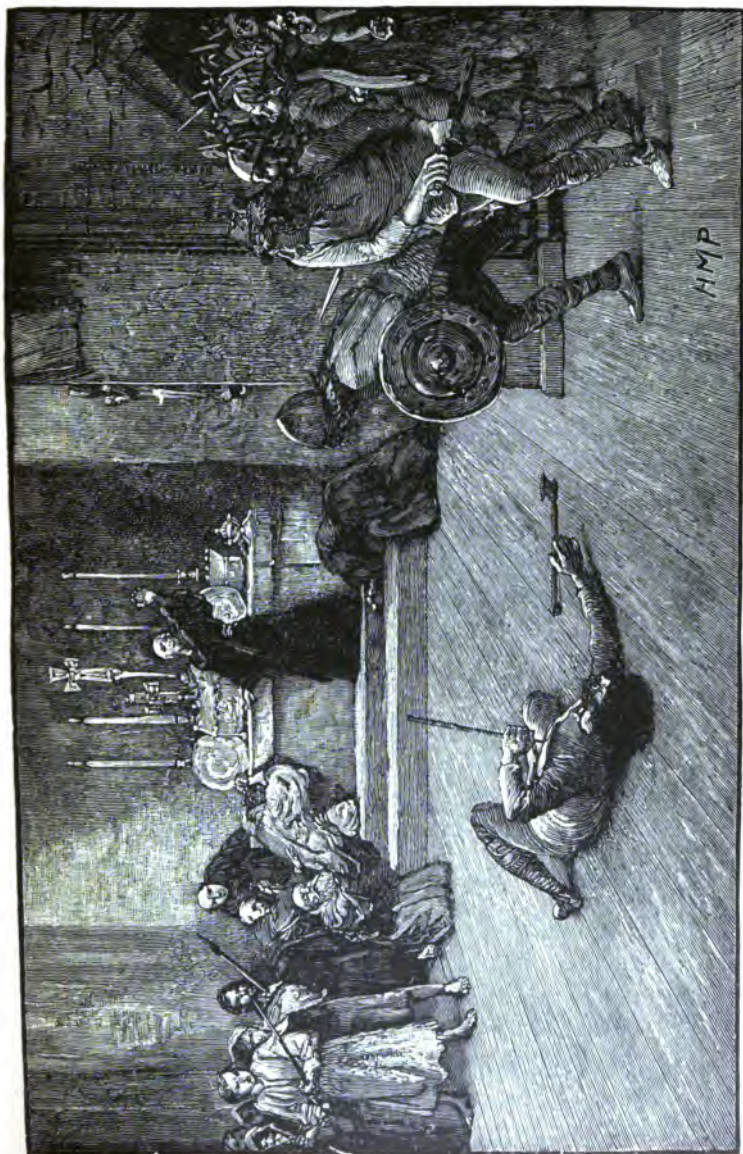
2. **The Monks.**—There were some, however, both men and women, who tried to make themselves better, but who found it hard to lead peaceable lives amidst a quarrelsome people. They therefore went to live by themselves in houses known as monasteries. These

monks and nuns, as they were called, lived hard lives, never marrying, and eating and drinking only just enough to keep themselves in health. They prayed much, and worked with their own hands to secure their daily food. Even amongst those who did not want to be monks or nuns there were many who learned from their example to try somewhat to amend their lives.

3. Egbert.—At last it seemed likely that the English peoples would no longer fight with one another. Egbert, King of the West Saxons, who lived in the south of England, subdued the other kingdoms, and made the whole of England submit to him.

4. The Danes.—Just at this time a new enemy appeared: the Danes, as we call them—though many of them were really Norwegians. They were still heathens, like the Angles and Saxons when they first arrived. They loved the sea, and were always ready to fight and rob. When they landed, they slew and burnt, and then sailed away with their booty. In some places on the Continent where they were known as Northmen, a new petition was added to the Litany: ‘From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord, deliver us.’ After a while the Danes, tempted by the prospect of spoil, left their ships and marched through the land. The monasteries were a special object of their greed; for the monasteries were often stored with gold and silver communion-plate, and with valuable property which the neighbours had brought there for safety.

5. Alfred and the Danes.—The Danes were at last defeated by Egbert’s grandson Alfred. By the Treaty of Wedmore, in 878, Alfred agreed that the Danes



DANES PLUNDERING A MONASTERY.

16 *HISTORY OF ENGLAND TREATED POLITICALLY*

should have the north-east of England, whilst he kept the south-west. The Danes also promised to become Christians.

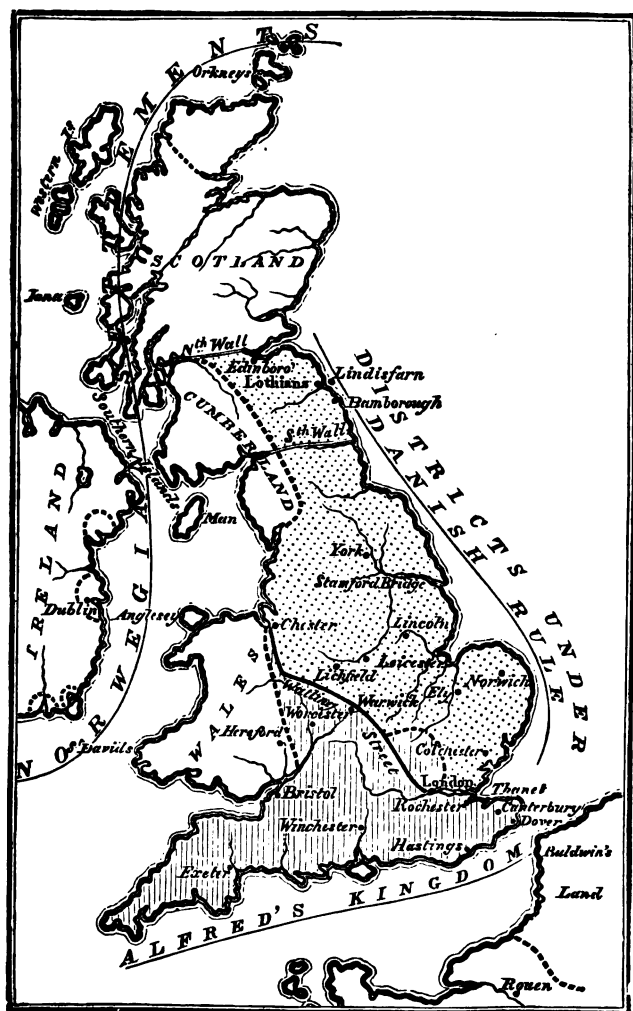
6. Alfred's Government.—Alfred seemed to be worse off than his grandfather had been. He had only half of England instead of the whole of it. He was, however, one of those men of whom the old saying was true : that the half is more than the whole. Not how much a man has is important to him, but what he does with that which he has. Alfred set to work to make his own kingdom worth living in. He collected good laws, and with the consent of his chief men ordered them to



A SILVER PENNY OF ALFRED THE GREAT. STRUCK AT LONDON.

be obeyed. He was ready at every moment to turn his attention to the wants of his subjects, to guide them in war against their enemies, to instruct them in peace in all the learning that he could acquire. He was so good a king because he thought first of being a good man ; because he longed to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with his God ; not because he thought it his duty so to do, but because he chose the higher life as altogether lovely in itself. It brought to him, as it brings to every man, labour and sorrow in toiling for those who are unworthy and thankless ; but his reward was not merely that all later generations have looked back to him

THE COMING OF AUGUSTINE AND THE DANES 17



ENGLAND AS DIVIDED BY THE TREATY OF WEDMORE, 878.

as the noblest of English kings, but that he himself grew nobler with the striving after the welfare of others.

7. The Submission of the Danes.—The men of southern England had grown better and wiser through Alfred's guidance. After his death his son Edward, his grandson Athelstan, his great-grandsons Edmund and Edred, won, by a steady course of victory over the Danes, that northern England which Alfred had abandoned. In 954 both Englishmen and Danes were united in submission to the English king.

booty: plunder.

communion-plate: the gold or silver vessels used in the sacrament.

con-ver'-sion: a change from a wicked to a good life. *Lat. con =*

with, *verto* = to turn.

Lit'-a-ny: a form of prayer used in public worship.

sub-mis'-sion: the act of yielding or giving in. *Lat. sub = under, mitto, missum = to send.*

CHAPTER III.

DUNSTAN AND CANUTE.

1. Dunstan's Youth.—After the long struggle with the Danes was over, Edgar, whom men called 'the Peaceful,' was king of the English. The real governor was his minister, Archbishop Dunstan. Dunstan was born at Glastonbury, where there was a monastery which had been a holy place revered by the British in days long past, and which was now a holy place revered by the English conquerors. When he was yet a boy he studied as few boys studied then. He was as fond of music as he was fond of his books. The rough warriors around him scorned the delicate boy who could read and play upon the harp but who could not fight, and once they

threw him on the ground and rode over his body. A long illness followed, and when he recovered strength he resolved to become a monk at Glastonbury. After a while he became Abbot, or head of the monastery; but he was so wise and skilful that one king after another chose him for a counsellor. When Edgar became king, he suffered Dunstan to rule England in his name.



EDGAR ON THE DEE.

2. Dunstan's Zeal for Education.—Dunstan was the first man who governed England without being a fighting man. During the wars with the Danes men had thought more of war than of learning, and Dunstan was most anxious, as Alfred had been anxious, that Englishmen might have knowledge as well as bravery. He brought in schoolmasters from beyond the sea, who could instruct the young. He did what he could to encourage the monks, for monks in those days were not lazy as they afterwards became. Bede, who many years before had written the history of our country in Latin, was a monk; and the men who wrote the 'Chronicle,' the book which

tells of the deeds of our forefathers in our own tongue, were also monks.

3. Dunstan as a Governor.—Besides teaching the people Dunstan had also to govern them. He did not try to make everyone live by the same rule. The English were to obey their own laws, and the Danes were to obey theirs. By not attempting to make all people do exactly as he himself thought best Dunstan obtained the willing obedience of all.

4. Ethelred's Reign.—Before Dunstan's life came to an end Edgar died, and Edgar's eldest son had been murdered. A younger son, Ethelred, became king, and before he grew up Dunstan was in his grave. He was unwise and unwarlike, and fresh hosts of Danes came over the sea to conquer England. Ethelred knew no better way to get rid of them than to give them money to go. When they came back he gave them more; and they were too well pleased not to come back again. At last, after the death of Ethelred and of his son, the Danish king, Canute, became King of England.

5. Canute's Reign.—Dunstan, who was an Englishman, had ruled over English and Danes without preferring one to the other. Canute ruled quite as fairly. He kept, indeed, a body of armed men to defend him if it was necessary, but he had no need to use them against his own subjects. He went about freely amongst his people, loved music and song as Dunstan had done, and was good to all priests and monks. He rebuilt the churches which had been destroyed during the wars, and was particularly careful to build up the monastery in which lay the body of St. Edmund, who had been an English king in the days

before Alfred, and who, having been shot to death with arrows by the heathen Danes, was counted as a saint after his burial. Some years before, Canute's father, Sweyn, had attempted to destroy this monastery, which stood in a town called Bury St. Edmunds, from the name of the saint. As Sweyn was riding to his evil work he was attacked by illness, and in his illness he fancied that he saw St. Edmund himself, a white rider on a white horse, rushing after him through the air to pierce him with his lance. Sweyn died, and men attributed his death to the anger of the dead English king whose shrine he was about to destroy. No wonder that Canute, remembering this tale, was anxious to appease the angry saint. Another story told how when Canute was once sitting by the side of the sea his courtiers told him that the tide would not dare to wet his feet; and how, when the tide rose higher than the place where his chair stood, he not only reprov'd the flatterers, but hung his crown on the head of an image of the crucified Saviour as if it was fit for Him alone to wear it. The story was invented at a later time, but it would never have been invented if Canute had not been held in memory, not as the fierce warrior which he had once been, but as the kind and meek ruler which he at last became.

ap-pease': to quiet; to pacify.

at-trib'-ut-ed: laid to. *Lat. ad = to, tribuo = to give.*

Glas'-ton-bury: a town in Somersetshire.

min'-is-ter: one entrusted with the management of state affairs; the chief minister in England now is the Prime Minister.

pre-fer-ring: choosing one before

another.

rav'-ag-ing: laying waste; destroying.

rev'-er-enc-ed: honoured; looked upon with great respect.

shrine: a chest above ground in a church in which the body of a saint was preserved. It was usually ornamented with precious stones.

CHAPTER IV.

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR AND HAROLD.

1. **The Election of Edward the Confessor.**—Canute's sons reigned after him, but they did not reign long; the last of them died as he was drinking hard. When a king died his nearest relative did not succeed to the throne as a matter of course. In the early times, when tribes were small, the new king was chosen by the meeting of the people, which declared war and judged criminals, though care was always taken to choose a near relative of the last king. When there was one king over the whole of England, it was impossible for all the people to meet. Very few men could afford to travel all the way from Devonshire or Northumberland. So it came about that the place of the assembly of the people was taken by the assembly of the wise men, as they were called: that is to say, by an assembly of bishops and abbots, of the king's officers, and other great and wealthy men. The assembly of the wise men, Danes and Englishmen alike, chose Edward, a son of Ethelred, to be king. Edward is known as Edward the Confessor, a name given to men of peculiar piety.

2. **Edward the Confessor.**—Edward had dwelt for many years beyond the sea, in the land called Normandy, because the Normans who had come from Norway had settled in it. The Normans had been there for a long time, and had learnt to speak French. They had finer buildings, and lived more elegantly than the English. Edward, when he arrived in England, disliked the rough

ways of the people round him. The language of his own fathers was like a foreign speech to him. He, therefore, sent for Normans to be with him, and delighted to talk French with them. He made one of these Normans Archbishop of Canterbury, and he promoted others to high posts at Court.

3. Earl Godwin.—The England over which Edward ruled was divided into districts governed by earls who were themselves under the king. One of these earls was Godwin, the Earl of the West Saxons, who governed the south of England. Godwin loved to increase his power, and to gain other earldoms for his sons, but he was an Englishman and disliked Edward's Norman favourites.

4. Godwin's Exile.—Once a French Count of Boulogne, who was the King's brother-in-law, came to visit Edward. As he returned by way of Dover, he bade the townsmen to give lodgings to himself and his men, though he did not mean to pay for them. In France and Normandy, knights, that is to say gentlemen who rode and fought on horseback, were accustomed to take what they pleased from the workers in the towns or the labourers in the country. In England law protected the poor as well as the rich. The count and his men disregarding the customs of the country mounted their horses to force their way into a house: they were so accustomed to fight on horseback that they could not think of any other way of fighting even in a narrow street. The townsmen resisted, and some of the count's men were killed in the scuffle. The count rode back to Edward to complain, and Edward angrily bade Godwin, who was

earl in that part of the country, to punish the men of Dover. Godwin answered that they might be punished if they were found guilty after a fair trial, but not otherwise. Edward ordered Godwin and all his family to leave the country, and Godwin, who had many enemies, was obliged to go.

5. William, Duke of the Normans.—Whilst Godwin was absent Edward's Norman favourites had their way in everything. In those days a visitor arrived in England who was far mightier than the Count of Boulogne. William, Duke of the Normans, was a great warrior and a wise ruler. He was stern and fierce to those who withstood him, but mild and gentle to all who did his will. To Edward he was mild and gentle. He wanted Edward, who was childless, to promise him the inheritance of the English crown: that crown was not Edward's to give; it would be the right of him who was chosen by the assembly of the wise men after Edward's death. Edward, however, was too fond of Norman ways to care about English law, and promised the inheritance to William.

6. Godwin's Return and Death.—When William was gone, Englishmen, tired of seeing the Normans in places of authority, wished Godwin to return. Godwin came back, and the Norman archbishop, who had done most to stir up strife between Earl Godwin and the king, fled beyond the sea, accompanied by Edward's other Norman favourites, who, as it was said, had judged unjust judgments and counselled evil counsel in the land. Godwin was reconciled to the king, but he died not long after his return.

7. Earl Harold.—After Godwin's death his son Harold became Earl of the West Saxons, and ruled England in Edward's name. Edward was chiefly busy with the building of Westminster Abbey. It was not the Abbey which is now seen. It was built with round arches—a fashion of building which had come down from the Romans, though there had been some changes in it—and not with the pointed arches which were afterwards used. Edward did not live to see his church consecrated, but he was buried in it.

8. Harold, King of the English.—When Edward died the assembly of the wise men chose Harold to be king. He had first to march northwards to resist an invasion from Norway; he defeated the Norwegian king at Stamford Bridge (1066), near York, and he then had to march southwards to meet William, who had landed at Pevensey with a large army to seize the crown which Edward had bequeathed to him. At Senlac (1066), near Hastings, Harold and his English host fought bravely, but the Normans were better armed and better led, and Harold was defeated and slain. William marched to Westminster, where the assembly of the wise men, too frightened to resist, accepted him as King of the English.

ac-cus'-tom-ed: used to; in the habit of.

Archbishop of Canterbury: the chief bishop of the English Church.

con'-se-crat-ed: set apart for religious services.

crim'-in-al: one guilty of crime.

el'-e-gant-ly: in fine style; richly.
in-her'-it-ance: that which is or may be inherited.

Pe'-en-sey: in Sussex.

pi'-e-ty: having the 'fear of God before your eyes.'

re'-con-cil-ed: restored to friendship or agreement.

CHAPTER V.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

1. **The Normans.**—There were three years and a half of fighting after William was crowned before England was conquered. William's Norman followers had not fought simply to please him. They wanted to have rich lands in England, and William took lands from the English to give to them. Yet he contrived to make robbery look as if it were lawful. He declared that he had himself been the rightful King of England since Edward's death, and that all who had fought against him were traitors, and had forfeited their lands by their treason. When William gave the lands of these men, who had only defended their own country, to the Normans, he did not give them outright. The new Norman land-owners held the land by what was called feudal service. They did not pay rent in money to the king, but paid it by bodily service in fighting for him as knights on horseback. If they refused to fight for him, or if they rebelled against him, he had a right to take back the land. If the land given to one of them was very large, then the owner would be expected to bring twenty or fifty or a hundred knights, according to the extent of the land, to fight for the king, and he was able to do this by giving out parts of his land to other knights on condition that they would follow him to battle.

2. **The English.**—The great estates passed in this way into the hands of the Normans, but many of the small

estates remained in the hands of the English. Some of the English paid rent in money, or in the produce of the harvest, to the Norman lords, remaining freemen; but most of those who actually cultivated the soil were no longer free. During the Danish wars a freeman who was poor needed protection, and he would bargain with some rich man living near him to protect him on condition that he should work for the rich man. These men who had entered into these bargains were called villeins by the Normans. A villein was not a slave nor a day-labourer. He had his own plot of land to cultivate, and his own cottage to live in, but just as the knight paid rent to the king or to the lord over him by bodily service in fighting, the villein paid rent to his lord by bodily service in ploughing or reaping.

3. William's Power.—The English, whether they were freemen or villeins, would rather not have been conquered by William, but, as they had been conquered, they preferred William's rule to the rule of the Norman lords. It is better to have one tyrant than many, and a tyrant at a distance is better than a tyrant near at hand. The English knew that the Norman lord who lived in the midst of them would illtreat them if he could, and they were therefore always ready to fight for William against the Norman lords, if he asked them to do so. This made William very strong, because whilst the English were ready to help him against the Normans the Normans were also ready to help him against the English.

4. The New Forest.—William was never cruel for the mere pleasure of cruelty, as some of the Norman lords

were. He destroyed every house and cottage and every green thing in the Vale of York to prevent the Scots and the Danes attacking him from that side. The New Forest in Hampshire he wasted for his pleasure. Like all his race he was a mighty hunter. It is said of him that he loved the high deer as if he had been their father. There were terrible punishments for those who chased them without his leave. Anyone who knows how poor the soil of the New Forest is, will be sure that it could never have been cultivated all over. What William did was to destroy the cottages and crops scattered in



A SILVER PENNY OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, STRUCK AT ROMNEY.

fertile places ; but even that was enough to bring on him the curses of the wanderers whom he had made homeless.

5. William's Domesday Book.—To us one of William's greatest titles to fame is the preparation of 'Domesday Book,' in which was set down the lands held by everyone in England. By this means William was able to tax everyone fairly, but there were many who thought that if there had been no 'Domesday Book' they would not have been taxed at all, and who did not like what he had done.

6. William's Death, 1087.—William had wars in France as well as in England. He set fire to Mantes,

a town on the Seine, which he had taken. His horse trampling on the burning embers stumbled and threw him forward on the pommel of his saddle. The bruise was deadly, and in a few days the Conqueror of England was a corpse. Then was seen how far better it was to have a stern ruler than to have no rule at all. William's knights, knowing that no one had now authority to punish robbers, and that knights and lords might easily become robbers, hastened home, each man to the defence of his own possessions. The servants who remained behind, robbed on their own account, and carried off the furniture of the room in which the Conqueror lay, and the very clothes which he had worn. The body of the mighty William lay all but naked on the floor. Yet, when he was at last carried to burial in the great church which he had built at Caen, the bystanders were reminded in an unexpected way how he had taught them to appeal to law rather than to force. A knight stepped forward from the throng and claimed the spot of ground in which the grave had been opened as his own. William, he said, had never paid for it, when he had seized it to build his church on. 'I challenge it,' he said, 'as mine before all men, and in the name of God I forbid that the body of the robber be covered with my mould, or that he be buried within the bounds of my inheritance.' Money was brought, the knight was satisfied, and the body of the Conqueror was allowed to rest in peace.

ag-gress': attack.

for'-feit-ed: lost the right of possession through some fault or crime.

pom'-mel: the high part of a

saddle-bow.

trai'-tor: one who betrays a trust; one guilty of treason.

ty'-rant: one who uses his power to act unjustly to others.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SONS OF THE CONQUEROR.

1. **Robert and William.**—The knights who had hurried from William's death-bed to protect their own were in the right. William's eldest son Robert succeeded him as Duke of the Normans; and Robert was an easy-going man, who left his subjects to do as they pleased. What they pleased to do was to rob and murder one another. The strong and powerful got what he wanted, the weak was oppressed. For many years there was no remedy for wrong in Normandy. England suffered in another manner: William II., the Conqueror's second son—the Red King, as men called him, from the colour of his face and hair—kept all men in awe as his father had done before him. But if he did not suffer others to rob he was himself a robber: he took whatever he wanted without regard for law and custom. No man dared to resist him except one who, like Archbishop Anselm, cared nothing for life or goods.

2. **The Abbey of Bec.**—Anselm had learned to obey God rather than man, first as a monk and then as Abbot of the Norman Abbey of Bec. Long before the days of William the Conqueror there was a knight in Normandy named Herlwin. Like other knights he had to follow his lord to war, to fight in unjust causes, to slay the innocent, and to plunder those who had done him no wrong. At last he could bear it no longer. He obtained permission to leave his lord's service, and retired to the

side of a stream, where he built a little monastery for himself and a few who, like-minded with himself, wished to devote themselves to prayer and meditation. In such a place the monks learned to obey, not from fear of punishment but willingly. They confessed their faults one to another, and bore without murmuring the penalty imposed by the abbot, sometimes even stripping their backs that they might be flogged by the others. There were many monasteries in Normandy where the monks were rude and quarrelsome, but at Bec all were peaceable and obedient to the rule under which they lived. Bec was like a sunny island in the midst of a stormy sea of cruelty and wrong. Thither came men who longed for peace either for its own sake or because they wished to read and think without interruption. Lanfranc, the great Italian scholar, afterwards became Abbot of Bec, and made it the best school in Normandy till he was taken by the Conqueror to be Archbishop of Canterbury.

3. Archbishop Anselm.—Anselm succeeded Lanfranc as Abbot of Bec. He, too, was a wise teacher, gentle to his scholars, and gentle even to animals, for whose sufferings no one in those days cared. On one occasion he rescued from the hunters a frightened hare which fled to him for refuge. When Anselm visited England he found that the Red King had kept the see of Canterbury vacant for four years after Lanfranc's death, and had seized the revenue. Before Anselm had left the country the wicked king became very ill and believed himself to be dying. With the fear of death before him he fancied that he repented of his evil deeds, and offered to make amends for them. His nobles begged him to appoint an

Archbishop of Canterbury. William agreed to appoint Anselm.

The nobles hurried out to fetch Anselm. Anselm refused to come. 'Consider,' he said, 'I am old and unfit for work. How can I bear the charge of all this Church?' Against his will he was dragged to the king's bedside and a crozier was forced into his hand. Anselm knew how little good he had to expect from the king if he should recover his health. He told the nobles that they had acted foolishly. They had yoked together a fierce untamable bull and an old and feeble sheep.

4. William's Quarrel with Anselm.—The Red King was soon well again and forgot all the promises which he had made in his sickness. One day he sent to Anselm for money. Anselm gave him some, but William sent it back, letting the archbishop know that it was not enough. Anselm at once gave the money to the poor and refused to give more to the king. At this the king was very wrathful. 'Yesterday,' he said of the archbishop, 'I hated him much, to-day still more; to-morrow and ever after he may be sure I shall hate him with more bitter hatred.' Before long William picked a quarrel with Anselm, ordering him to renounce obedience to Urban II. whom the archbishop had acknowledged as the lawful pope. William summoned Anselm to Rockingham and threatened him in the presence of the nobles and clergy. Anselm quietly answered that he could not do otherwise than his conscience allowed him, and being tired, leant his head against a pillar and went to sleep. The nobles took his part and refused to punish him. At last the king allowed him

to leave the country. When Anselm was gone the Red King behaved even more wickedly than before.

5. Henry I.—William was killed in the New Forest by accident or by design. He was succeeded by his younger brother, Henry I. The new king kept order in the



MILITARY, CIVIL, AND ECCLESIASTICAL COSTUME, IN THE TIME OF HENRY I.

country as his father had done before him. His chief minister was Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, who advised him to send judges about the country to try prisoners and to decide lawsuits, so that men might have justice in spite of the power of the nobles.

cro'-zier: a staff with a crook at the top, carried before bishops on solemn occasions.

med-i-ta'-tion: deep thought.

pen'-al-ty: punishment.

rem'-e-dy: anything which cures

an evil or repairs a loss.

re'-ven-ue: income from all sources the income of a state.

Rock'-ing-ham: a place in a forest in Northamptonshire.

sum'-mon-ed: called.

CHAPTER VII.

STEPHEN AND HENRY II.

1. **Stephen's Reign.**—Henry I. left no son to succeed him. His daughter Matilda wished to be queen, but there had never been a queen in England, and the fierce nobles were not likely to submit to one. They chose Stephen (1100), a nephew of Henry I., to be king. Stephen was unable to keep them in order as his uncle had done, and when Matilda came over to claim the throne, there was a civil war between them. All the great nobles chose one side or the other, but they cared less for fighting amongst themselves than for oppressing those who were too weak to resist. They robbed the peasants and burnt their cottages and crops, and carried off merchants and travellers to their castles, where they tortured them to force them to pay ransom for their lives. Stephen and Matilda were too much occupied with their own quarrel to be able to protect their subjects.

2. **Henry II. and the Nobles.**—After Stephen's death, Henry II., Matilda's son, reigned. Like his grandfather, Henry I., he understood how to keep the great barons—as the nobles were called—in order. He destroyed their castles, and compelled them to submit to the law. He hit upon a plan for making them less warlike, which was very successful. He offered to excuse them from their duty of serving him as knights when he went to war, if they would pay him a fixed sum of money instead. They were glad to escape from their military

service, and cheerfully did as the king wished. In this way they became less accustomed to fight, and were, therefore, less dangerous to the king. At the same time Henry took care that everyone who had a small piece of land should be trained to bear arms, and be ready to defend the country in case of invasion or rebellion. He knew that these poorer landowners would always be ready to take his side against the barons, and that as they had now arms in their hands they would not submit to be as ill-treated as they had been in Stephen's time.

3. Judicial Reforms.—Henry revived his grandfather's plan of sending judges about the country. The judges tried to find out the truth by asking a certain number of men in each county who was the true owner of land in dispute, or who had committed murders or robberies. These men were sworn to tell the truth. After a while it was found that they did not always know what the truth was and had to ask others. After Henry's reign, therefore, the custom grew up that they should not give their opinion till they had heard the evidence of others. In this way they became a jury, that is to say, a body of men who are sworn to declare their belief that something is true, after hearing witnesses.

4. Henry II. and the Clergy.—Henry wished that the clergy, if they did wrong, should be tried in his courts like other people. The clergy, however, declared that they could only be tried in their own courts. Becket, who had been appointed Archbishop of Canterbury by the king, took up the cause of the clergy. There was a quarrel between him and Henry, and he was driven from the country. After a while he was allowed to return,



MURDER OF THOMAS A BECKET.

but he was a passionate man and gave offence to Henry again. Henry was also passionate, and expressed a wish to be rid of Becket. Four knights at once went off to Canterbury, and murdered Becket in the Cathedral. The



PENANCE OF HENRY II.

murder made Henry unpopular, and there was a rebellion of the great barons against him. Yet, though people did not like the murder, they did not at all wish to see the great barons strong enough to do as they had done



in Stephen's time, and everyone was well pleased that Henry was victorious over them.

5. Henry's Foreign Dominions.—In Henry's time some of his barons made a beginning of the conquest of Ireland. He, himself, ruled over the western part of France from the English Channel to the Pyrenees. He had great troubles with his own sons. The elder ones rebelled against him from time to time, and his youngest son, John, whom he loved most, at last secretly helped the French king, Philip II., against his own father. When Henry made peace with Philip, he was informed of John's treachery, and was so grieved that he fell into an illness of which he died soon afterwards.

cath-e'-dral: the chief church in a district ruled over by a bishop.

civil war: a war between different parties in a country.

e'-vi-dence: that which a man declares that he has seen. *Lat.* *e* = out, *video* = to see.

tor'-tur-ed: put to pain in order to make a man tell that which he wishes to conceal.

treach'-er-y: act of betraying;

ran'-som: the price paid to be freed from captivity or punishment.

CHAPTER VIII.

RICHARD I. AND JOHN.

1. Richard's Reign.—Henry's son Richard—who is known as the Lion Heart—cared very little for England. He spent his reign partly in going on a crusade—that is to say, on a war for the possession of the Holy Land—and partly in fighting in France after his return. He only came twice to England, and both times his object was to collect as much money as possible.

2. John loses Normandy.—John, who succeeded his brother Richard, was the most wicked king who has ever ruled in England except perhaps William Rufus. Before he had long been on the throne he murdered his nephew Arthur, whom he suspected of wishing to make himself king; and Philip, the French king, made this an excuse for taking from him Normandy and other lands in France, north of the Loire. The loss of Normandy by John was a good thing for Englishmen. Normans and English had intermarried with one another, and there was scarcely any one amongst the nobles and gentlemen who was not descended from an English as well as a Norman family. Still, they continued to speak French and not English, and many of them had possessions in Normandy, so that they could only think of themselves as half English. Now that Normandy was conquered by Philip these nobles had to give up their lands beyond the sea, and they gradually came to regard themselves as completely English, and to take a greater interest in the affairs of the country in which they now entirely lived.

3. John's Tyranny.—The barons were the readier to assist their poorer neighbours as John ill-treated rich and poor alike, robbing and insulting them at his pleasure. In his father's time the king had been popular because he prevented the barons from oppressing the people. Now the barons grew popular because they were ready to prevent the king from oppressing the people.

4. John's Quarrel with the Pope.—The clergy, too, were ready to help the people and the barons, because they were treated as badly as the rest. When John appointed



JOHN RECEIVING BACK HIS CROWN FROM THE PAPAL LEGATE.

one of his favourites archbishop of Canterbury, the monks of Canterbury elected one of their own number, named Reginald, to be archbishop, and sent him off to the pope for his approbation. The pope was Innocent III., who believed it would be the best thing that kings should have nothing to do with appointing bishops, but he soon found out that Reginald was too foolish to make a good archbishop, and he told the monks to elect Stephen Langton, one of the most pious and learned men in Europe. John refused to allow Stephen Langton to enter England, and the pope placed the country under an interdict, in consequence of which no services could be held in the churches. John was not at all displeased at having an excuse for not going to church, and also for seizing the goods of such of the clergy as obeyed the pope by shutting up the churches.

5. John submits to the Pope.— John was able to oppress all classes of his subjects because he brought to England an army of mercenaries, that is to say of foreign soldiers paid by him, who had no sympathy with Englishmen. At last the pope offered the English crown to Philip, and when John knew that a French army was coming against him he submitted to the pope, and agreed to hold his crown from him and to pay him a sum of money every year as a token that he was no longer an independent king.

6. The Resistance of the Barons.— John was now obliged to restore to the clergy all that he had taken from them, but the laity were no better off than they had been before. Stephen Langton was not content to see only the clergy righted. He drew up a set of demands on behalf of all

Englishmen which the king was to be asked to grant. The barons took arms to compel John to consent to these requests, and it happened that his mercenaries were no longer with him. Sorely against his will John swore at Runnimede—an island in the Thames near Staines—to consent to all Langton's requests.

7. The Great Charter (1215).—These requests when granted by the king were known as the 'Great Charter' or by their Latin name as 'Magna Carta.'

One of the most important of the king's promises was that he would not levy money from those who held lands from him, except in certain specified cases, unless they granted it themselves at a meeting of the Great Council, at which every man who had lands from the king might be present if he chose. What was thus promised to a particular class of men was, some years after John's death, extended to all the king's subjects, so that it became a rule that the king could not have any money unless it was given him by those who were to pay it, or by persons chosen by them to sit in Parliament and to speak in their name. When this point was settled the king was obliged to govern not as he wished but as the people wished, because he could not do what they disliked without driving them to refuse to give him the money which he needed.

Another of John's promises was no less important. 'No freeman,' he was made to declare, 'shall be seized, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or in any way brought to ruin; nor will we go against any man, or send against him, save by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.' As long as this promise

was kept no English king could punish anyone without having him tried before a jury of his fellow-countrymen, so that he could not imprison or kill anyone at his own pleasure or by the orders of his officers, as the kings upon the Continent could do. Whatever John granted to the nobles, they were obliged to grant to their dependents, and in this way the Great Charter secured justice



A SILVER PENNY OF JOHN. STRUCK AT DUBLIN.

not only for the rich and powerful, but for all Englishmen alike.

8. Last Days of John.—John tried to get back what he had given. He recalled his mercenaries, and the barons invited Philip's son Louis to be King of England. John, however, seemed likely to get the better of his enemies, but he died at Newark before any decisive battle was fought.

de-pend'-ent: one who depends on or is sustained by another.

dis-poss-ess'-ed: deprived of his property or possessions.

la'-i-ty: all the people of a country who do not belong to the clergy.

Loire: a river flowing through France.

out'-law-ed: deprived of the pro-

tection of the law.

peers: equals.

pop'-u-lar: held high in favour by the people.

New'-ark: a town in Nottinghamshire.

spe'-ci-fi-ed: mentioned or named particularly or one by one.

Staines: a town near Windsor.

CHAPTER (IX,

pages 45 = 111

THE FIRST YEARS OF HENRY III.

1. **Accession of Henry III.**—It seems strange to us that a Frenchman should have been asked to reign in England ; but, in those days, when the great men talked French, it did not seem strange. Yet even these great men were beginning to think of themselves as Englishmen, and when John was dead they supported his son Henry III., a boy nine years old, in preference to the French Louis. Louis was therefore soon obliged to leave the country.

2. **Francis of Assisi.**—Whilst the rich and well-to-do were struggling for better government, there were few who gave any thought to the miserable condition of the very poor. One young man, however, who lived at Assisi in Italy, was saddened by the wretchedness around him. Unless a poor man lived close to a monastery there was no one to help him if he was sick or in distress. Francis resolved not merely to help those who were miserable but to be as they were. He would marry, he said, but his bride should be Poverty. One day his father sent him with a bale of goods to sell in a neighbouring town. He sold the goods, and sold his father's horse which carried them as well. Instead of bringing the money back he gave it away to build a church. Naturally his father was enraged, and he shut him up in a dark room. The bishop was sent for, and told Francis that he ought not to take his father's money. 'I will

give him,' answered Francis, 'the very clothes I wear,' and stripping himself naked, threw his clothes at his father's feet. The bishop covered him with his mantle, and from that time Francis was his own master. 'I have now,' he said, 'but one Father, He that is in heaven.'

Francis used his new liberty in living amongst the poorest of the poor. All who were sick, even if their disease was as foul as leprosy, could count on him for the tenderest nursing and the most loving sympathy. Many others, some of them rich and noble, left all to follow him, and these he named 'friars,' that is to say, 'brothers.' His love went abroad to all created things. Once he preached to a flock of birds, believing that they too were his brothers. When he died his last words were 'Welcome, sister Death!'

3. The Coming of the Friars.—The friars, the brethren of Francis, spread into many lands, and amongst these lands was England. They did not shut themselves up in monasteries like the old monks, but moved about wherever any were sick or hungry or sad. They lived often amidst the stench of the unclean filth which was to be found in the undrained quarters of the poor, and suffering many hardships that they might be able to comfort the sorrowful as those who knew sorrow themselves. They had no money, but supported themselves and those for whom they laboured by means of the alms which they received. Other friars there were besides those who followed Francis. Some devoted themselves to preaching rather than to visiting the poor, but they all lived on alms, and were therefore known as 'mendicant friars.'

4. Henry III. and the Foreigners.—The young king took no interest in the friars. As he grew up, he was fond of the society of foreigners, as Edward the Confessor had been, and these foreigners were neither wise nor good. Early in his life he favoured some who came from Poitou, his mother's country. Later on, when he married a lady of Provence, he surrounded himself with her kinsmen and friends. One of them, named Boniface, he made Archbishop of Canterbury. To others he gave castles and lands. He allowed the pope to send messengers to England to tax the clergy in order to pay for wars in Italy. When the clergy failed to pay as much as the pope wanted, Henry taxed both laity and clergy, and sent the money to Rome.

alms: money given in charity.

lep'-ro-sy: an incurable disease which covers the skin with scales.

men'-di-cant: one who is in extreme want; a beggar.

Poitou: in the west of France,

south of the Loire.

Provence: in the south-east of France, on the coast between the Rhone and the Alps.

sym'-pa-thy: a feeling of kindness to another, caused by putting one's self in another's place.

CHAPTER X.

THE BARONS' WAR.

1. The Growth of Parliament.—In order to levy the taxes that he needed for his foreign friends and for the pope, Henry was obliged to ask the consent of the Great Council—an assembly which was now beginning to be known as 'Parliament,' and which was, in reality, the same as the old meeting of the wise men, with certain changes, and was composed of the great barons, with the

bishops and abbots; and which was, therefore, very like the present House of Lords without any House of Commons, except that there are now no abbots to sit in Parliament. For some time Parliament allowed Henry to have the taxes for which he asked, but at last the barons could bear his importunity no longer. They declared that if Henry was to have money, he must at least send away the foreigners.

2. The 'Provisions of Oxford.'—The Barons found a leader in Earl Simon de Montfort, who had married the king's sister, and was not only a great warrior but an able statesman. 'Sir Simon the Righteous,' was the name by which he was popularly known, as he took up the cause, not only of the barons, but of all Englishmen alike. Under his guidance a Parliament was held at Oxford in 1258, by which the foreigners were driven from the country, and the king was forced to accept the 'Provisions of Oxford.' These were rules according to which the country was to be governed by councils of barons instead of by the king. This arrangement did not last long, as the lesser landowners began to fear that they would not get justice from the great ones. Earl Simon would have done them justice if he had been able, but the barons were too strong for him. The king took advantage of the dispute, and almost regained his old authority.

3. The County Members in Parliament.—For some time there was much confusion. Earl Simon was, however, growing in strength. Some years before the freeholders—or those who held land of their own, whether it was much or little—had been allowed to choose representatives to go to Parliament to speak in their name. As

these men were chosen by the freeholders of each county they were like the county members of our own time. The towns as yet had no representatives, but they were growing in prosperity, and they threw themselves on the side of the earl, who seemed more likely to be able to protect them than either the king or the great barons.

4. The Government of Earl Simon.—When it seemed as if Henry was about to recover his power Simon and the barons were reconciled. In 1264 the earl defeated the king at Lewes and made him prisoner. Soon afterwards the king's eldest son, Prince Edward, surrendered himself. For more than a year Earl Simon ruled England. He summoned the towns to send representatives to Parliament, so that every class—the great landowners, the clergy, the small landowners, and the townsmen—might be able to say for itself what it wanted. As happens now at the time of a general election, the whole nation would say what it wished to be done. It is the business of what is now called the Government to find out how it is to be done.

5. The End of the Reign of Henry III.—Earl Simon's plan was good, but the barons were jealous of him, and he was perhaps too rough and overbearing in his dealings with them. Prince Edward made his escape, and most of the barons gathered round him. He caught Earl Simon at Evesham (1265) with a small force, and there he defeated and slew him. By the mass of the people Simon was counted as a martyr. Henry's power was restored, but with his son, who was far wiser than himself, to help him to govern, his rule was a much better one than it had been before.

ab'-bot: the head or ruler of a monastery.

au-thor'-i-ty: power.

Eves'-ham: a town in Worcester-shire on the River Avon.

general election: an election of all the members of the House of Commons in a new Parliament.

im-por-tu'-ni-ty: urging over and over again.

le'-vy: to raise or collect taxes or men for an army.

re'-con-cil-ed: made friends.

rep-re-sen'-ta-tive: one chosen to act for another or others.

sur-ren'-der-ed: gave up.

CHAPTER XI.

EDWARD I.

1. Edward I. as a Lawgiver.—After Henry's death Prince Edward became King Edward I. He was resolved, as Earl Simon had been resolved, that foreigners should not enjoy the wealth of England, and though he did not for some time summon a complete Parliament, as Earl Simon had done, he called on those men who knew anything about the matters on which he wanted advice to meet him in order to give him their opinions. In this way he became a great lawgiver, because he never made a law without first hearing what those had to say whom the law principally concerned. In his day England prospered as it had never prospered before. He kept the peace, and never allowed the barons to oppress the freeholders, or to resist the authority of the king.

2. Conquest of Wales (1282).—Kings who, like Edward, have the capacity for keeping order are often eager to bring fresh countries under their dominion, because they have as great a horror of disorder and turbulence as a cleanly person has of dirt. The descendants of the ancient Britons living in the mountainous country round Snow-

don were still independent; and poor mountaineers, who are not brought under law, are apt to plunder their



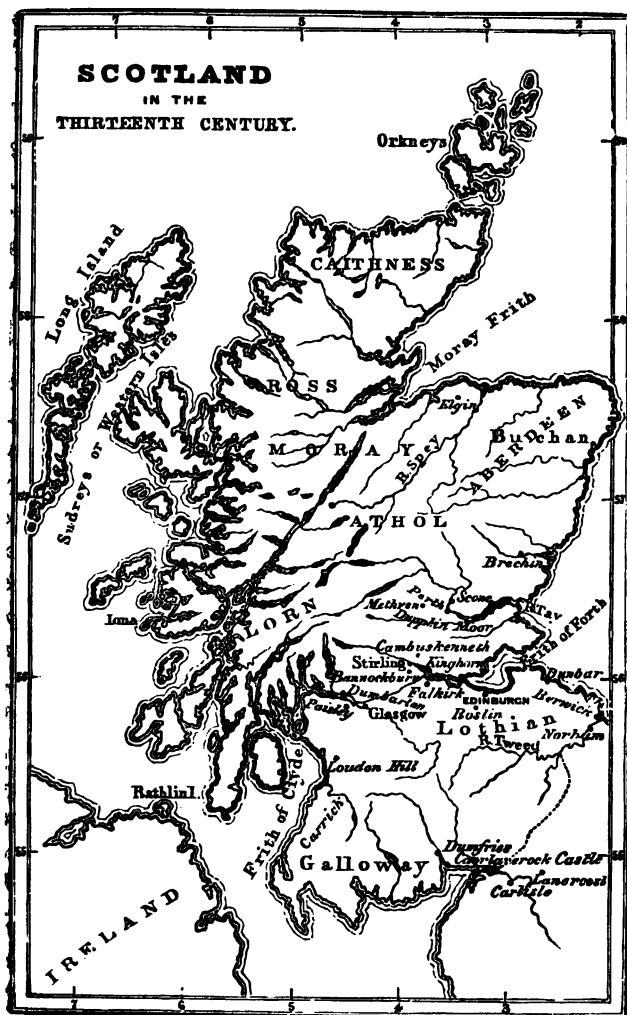
neighbours. Edward completed the conquest of Wales, and united it to his English kingdom. Yet though he forced them to submit to law he gave them laws which

suited them, and did not compel them to live completely under the English law. He showed to them his infant son, and offered the child to them as their prince. From that time the eldest son of the King of England has always borne the title of 'Prince of Wales.'

3. Edward's Interference in Scotland.—Edward was tempted by his success in Wales to interfere in Scotland. The Scottish throne was vacant, and Edward was called on to decide who had the best claim. He gave his decision in favour of John Baliol, but he did not do this till the Scots had acknowledged him to be Lord Paramount, that is to say, to be the superior of the Scottish king. In the old days before and after the Norman Conquest the English kings had exercised some kind of superiority, but whatever their right may have been it had been sold to the King of Scotland by Richard I.

4. Edward subdues Scotland.—Edward was not content with a mere title. Some men who lost their causes in Scottish courts of law asked to be heard again in the English courts, and Edward insisted that their wish should be granted. The Scots were angry, and forced John Baliol to resist. Edward invaded Scotland, deposed Baliol, and annexed the whole country. The Scots rose, under William Wallace, against the foreign government, but though Wallace defeated the English at Stirling he was himself defeated at Falkirk as soon as Edward came in person against him. Scotland had once more to submit to English rulers.

5. The Confirmation of the Charters.—Edward found that if he was to keep Scotland down he would need all the support that England could give him. He there-



fore, in 1295, called together the first complete Parliament, if the one which was summoned by Earl Simon is not counted. Either then, or at least not long afterwards, Parliament was divided into two houses. The barons, with the bishops and abbots, formed the House of Lords, whilst the men chosen by the counties and towns formed the House of Commons. Edward found that if he was to expect money from Parliament for his wars he must promise never to take money without consent of Parliament; and, in 1297, he swore to articles known as the 'Confirmation of the Charters,' in which he promised to levy no more money, as he had hitherto been doing, without a grant from Parliament.

6. Edward I. and the Clergy.—Edward had given way to his Parliament, but he would not allow the clergy to resist him. The pope had ordered the clergy not to pay taxes to kings, who were only laymen. Edward did not fly into a passion as Henry II. had done when Becket displeased him, but let the clergy know that if they did not pay taxes he would be unable to protect them. The consequence was, that if a clergyman was robbed the judges refused to punish the robber, so that the clergy soon discovered that it was safer for them to pay taxes.

7. Robert Bruce.—Edward allowed the Scots to send representatives to the English Parliament; but they wanted to manage their own affairs. They found a leader in Robert Bruce. Bruce was hardy and audacious. In the church at Dumfries he stabbed Comyn, who laid some claim to the Scottish crown. 'I doubt'—he cried, as he rushed from the sacred building—'I have slain the

Red Comyn.' 'I will make sure,' was the reply of one of his followers, who went into the church and completed the murder. It was just the sort of thing which would rouse Edward's indignation. The Scots wanted a leader, and crowned Bruce as King of Scotland. Edward's troops were too strong for Bruce, and he was driven into the wild glens of the Highlands. The Countess of Buchan, who had placed the crown on his head, was shut up like a captive bird in an iron cage which was fixed high up on the wall of the castle at Berwick.



COIN OF EDWARD I.

8. Edward's Death.—Edward set forth once more to complete the destruction of Bruce himself, but the old man's work was done. The noblest of our English kings died in 1307 near Carlisle, at Burgh-upon-Sands. In England he had been a wise and a firm ruler, striving to give every man his due and to keep every promise which he had once made. In Scotland he was long remembered as a bloodthirsty tyrant, because, though he meant well by the Scots, and was anxious to give them the peace and order which he had given to England, he

forgot that the Scottish nation wished to be governed in its own way, and not by a foreign king.

an-nex'-ed: joined to; took possession of. *Lat. ad* = to, *necto* = to tie.

au-da'-ci-ous: daring; bold.

bar'-ons: nobles.

de-pos'-ed: put down from off the throne. *Lat. de* = down, *positus* = placed.

in-dig-na'-tion: anger; wrath.

tur'-bul-ence: disorder.

CHAPTER XII.

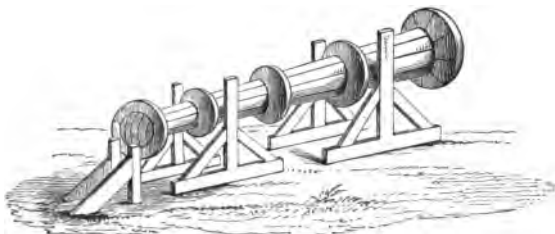
SCOTTISH INDEPENDENCE AND THE FRENCH WAR.

1. Independence of Scotland.—Edward II. cared for nothing but amusement. Though the English soldiers, whom his great father had trained, held Scotland down for a time, Bruce was bold and cautious, and gained one stronghold after another, till every fortress in Scotland except Stirling had fallen into his hands. Even Edward II. was provoked to attempt to deliver Stirling, but he was thoroughly defeated at Bannockburn, and Scotland never again ran any serious risk of being conquered.

2. Murder of Edward II.—At home Edward provoked all honest men by the favour which he showed to unworthy favourites. Even his wife joined his enemies, and with general assent dethroned him, and made his eldest son king as Edward III. Not long afterwards the dethroned king was brutally murdered at Berkeley Castle.

3. Edward III. and the War with France.—Edward III. had not been long on the throne before he went to war with France. After the war had been going on for some years Edward claimed to be rightfully king of France, as

his mother was the sister of the last king. The French would have nothing to do with him. Their king, they said, was Philip VI., the last king's cousin, because no woman could wear the French crown or pass on a claim to it to her sons. What they really wanted was the same as that which the Scots had wanted, namely that they should be ruled by a man of their own country and not by a foreigner. The war with France ran much the same course as the war with Scotland had done. At first the English army won great victories. At the battle of Crecy (1346) King Philip was thoroughly defeated by



ANCIENT CANNON.

Edward, and at the battle of Poitiers Philip's son, who succeeded him as King John, was thoroughly defeated by Edward's eldest son, the Black Prince; but in the end the resolution of the French prevailed, and Edward III. was no more able permanently to subdue France than his grandfather had been to subdue Scotland.

4. Chivalry.—Both in England and France the combatants who were thought most of were the knights who fought on horseback. It was the duty of a knight to fight bravely. It was also his duty, when the battle was over, to treat knights and gentlemen with courtesy

and mercy. The word 'chivalry,' which means that which befits a knight, is still used whenever a man who is strong encounters danger or loss to help those who are weak, and more especially to help and protect a woman. Unfortunately it was not then regarded as the duty of a knight to treat with kindness the peasants in the fields

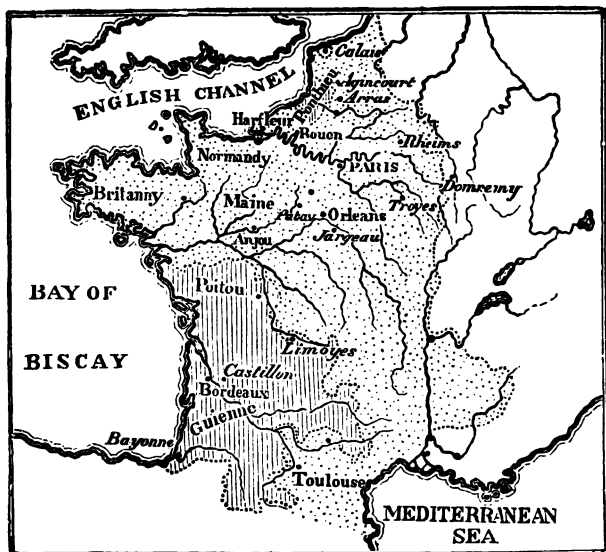


THE KING AND HIS COUNCIL.

or the workmen in the towns, and even the Black Prince, who waited like a servant behind the chair of King John after he had taken him prisoner at Poitiers, did not scruple to command that men, women, and children should be massacred when he took the town of Limoges.

5. The House of Commons.—The victories in France

were mainly won by the English archers. These archers were men who were freeholders in England, having small pieces of land of their own and owing no service to any one. In France there was no such class. Those who worked in the fields there were serfs who, like the villeins



FRANCE AFTER THE PEACE OF BREITIGNY.

(The dotted space represents the Dominions of the King of France; the space marked with lines represents the Dominions of the King of England after the Peace of Breitigny.)

in England, were obliged to work for their lords, and who could not be trusted to fight for them. The English freeholders could be trusted to fight for their own country. It was this class of men who chose the county members in the House of Commons, as the merchants and shopkeepers of the towns chose the members for the boroughs.

The House of Commons gained more influence during the war than they had had before, as the war was costly and Edward III. was extravagant. He was, therefore, obliged to give up some of his power in return for grants of money by the House of Commons, and though he often cheated his subjects and took back what he had granted, he was obliged to pay more attention to their wishes than had been paid before.

6. The Peace of Bretigny.—At last Edward made peace with France at Bretigny. In spite of his victories he found it impossible to keep the whole country in subjection, and he agreed to content himself with Aquitaine, in the south-west of France, a district which had for some centuries been ruled by his ancestors. King John was to be set at liberty upon the payment of an enormous ransom.

an'-ces-tors: forefathers.

as-sent': an agreeing with.

Berkeley Castle: a castle in Gloucestershire.

com'-bat-ant: one who fights or combats.

cour'-te-sy: elegance of manner.

Li'-moges: an inland town of France on the River Vienne.

mas'-sa-cred: killed with violence and cruelty.

per'-ma-nent-ly: extending over a length of time.

serfs: not slaves, but men having land for which they paid by working for their lords, instead of payment in money.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE LAST YEARS OF EDWARD III. AND THE REIGN OF RICHARD II.

1. The Black Death and the Statute of Labourers.—One very numerous class of people in England, that of the labourers who tilled the soil, had no representatives in

the House of Commons, and they had therefore reason to fear lest the members who were chosen by the freeholders and gentlemen in the counties, and by the merchants in the towns, might make laws to their disadvantage. This was exactly what happened. There swept over the country a terrible disease known as the Black Death, in which, in all probability, one person out of every two died. Consequently the landowners found it very hard to get labourers in sufficient numbers to do their work, and the labourers, finding how much their services were in request, began to ask for higher wages. Parliament then passed an unjust law called the 'Statute of Labourers,' directing that no one should ask for higher wages than he had had when labourers were many before the time of the Black Death.

2. The Good Parliament.—The labourers, were, as might have been expected, very dissatisfied. At the end of the reign of Edward III. others were dissatisfied too. The king's mind was diseased, and he no longer understood what he did. He allowed unworthy favourites to rule in his name, and these favourites were supported by the king's second son, John of Gaunt, and by many of the most powerful of the nobility. The reason of this was that the French war had begun again, and as the French were more cautious than before, the English nobles did not get so much plunder as they had secured in the former war. As they could no longer pillage the French they wanted to pillage the clergy.

At that time the chief offices of the state, such as those of lord chancellor and lord treasurer, were filled by bishops, because laymen were too ignorant to do the

work properly. John of Gaunt got the bishops turned out of the political offices which they held. There was, however, enough good sense in Englishmen to teach them that John of Gaunt only wanted to get money, and the Black Prince, though he was very ill, appeared in Parliament and declared against his brother.

The 'Good Parliament,' as it was called, brought back the bishops into office and punished the king's



TOMB OF EDWARD THE BLACK PRINCE IN CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

favourites, who had been cheating both the king and the nation. The Black Prince died soon afterwards, and then John of Gaunt did as he pleased. Soon after this Edward III. died also, and then Englishmen insisted that his grandson, the son of the Black Prince—whom they loved and admired—should be king, as Richard II., and that the crown should not be seized on by John of

Gaunt. In this way it was finally settled that if the king's eldest son died before him the crown should go to the king's grandson, even if he was a child, and not to the king's next son, as it did when John took it instead of the boy Arthur, his nephew.

3. Richard II. and the Peasants' Revolt.—Richard was but ten years old when his grandfather died, and he had not been long on the throne when the peasants broke out into rebellion. The gentlemen had everywhere treated them badly, forcing them to accept smaller wages than their labour was worth, and sometimes compelling them to work according to the old custom, without giving them wages at all. At last, though not without difficulty, the rebellion was suppressed, though after a time the labourers got what they wanted. Forced labour without payment came to an end; the labourers who received wages got precisely what the market value of their labour was, and neither less nor more.

4. John Wyclif.—John Wyclif was a learned priest who argued that the power of the pope was hurtful to England. The popes were always asking for English money, as their predecessors had done in the days of Henry III. They did not now ask for English taxes, but they gave away Church livings to Italians. In the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. laws were made to stop this. Wyclif supported these laws, and he also argued against the wealth and power of the clergy. Clergymen, he said, ought to preach and visit the poor instead of becoming officers of state. John of Gaunt and his friends, who merely wanted to plunder the clergy, were delighted at Wyclif's language. But while John of

Gaunt wanted to take away the money of the clergy because they did not do their duty, Wyclif wanted them to do their duty and to keep their money if they did it.

It was, therefore, unlikely that John of Gaunt would always remain friendly to Wyclif. Wyclif began to teach things which had no interest for John of Gaunt. He translated the Bible and sent out 'poor priests,' as they were called, to explain it to the people. The great poet, Chaucer, is thought to have had Wyclif in his mind when he described a good priest, and told how he taught the doctrine of Christ and of His apostles, but followed it first himself.

John of Gaunt certainly did not want to follow the doctrine of Christ, and when the peasants rose in insurrection he turned against Wyclif. John of Gaunt thought it a fine thing to be able to quote Wyclif's argument that clergymen ought to do their duty, but he was not well pleased when the peasants began to argue that gentlemen ought to do their duty. He and the great nobles preferred to argue that anyone ought to do as he pleased with everything he had got, and they began to look on Wyclif as a disturber of the peace. Wyclif was prevented from teaching at Oxford, and was forced to go to his parish at Lutterworth, where he died not long after.

5. End of Richard II.—Richard II. was too careless to make a good king. He lost all his grandfather's conquests in France except Calais. When his uncle, John of Gaunt, died he seized his lands; but John's heir, Henry, who had been banished from England, came back to claim his inheritance. Every gentleman in

England thought that if Henry's lands were seized no man's property would be safe, and rose in favour of Henry. Henry not only regained his lands but took the crown from Richard. In those days it was a short step for a king from the throne to the grave, and Richard was murdered at Pontefract not long after his dethronement.

dis-sat'-is-fi-ed: not contented;
not satisfied.

lord chancellor: the chief judge
in a court called the Court of
Chancery

Lut'-ter-worth: a town in Lei-
cestershire.

pill'-age: plunder; robbery.

plun'-der: rob.

pre-cise'-ly: exactly.

pre'-de-cess-ors: those going before.

pro-ba-bi'-li-ty: likelihood.

Pon'-te-fract: a town in South
Yorkshire.

sup-press'-ed: put down.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

1. Henry IV.—The new king, Henry IV., sat on the throne because Parliament allowed him to occupy it, and not by right of birth; he was, therefore, obliged to act as Parliament wished him. In many ways it was good that the king should not do as he pleased; but parliaments sometimes do wrong things as well as kings. For the first time in English history, a law was made directing that heretics—that is to say, people who did not believe as the Church believed—should be burnt alive. The bishops and all religious persons at that time thought that all who believed what was false would suffer everlasting torments; and, therefore, thought it a charitable

thing to burn people whose teaching would lead to such frightful consequences.

As for Henry himself, he had difficulty enough in keeping his crown ; one rebellion after another gave him trouble. The poet Shakespeare told how shortly before he died the old king fell asleep, and how his son, Prince Henry, put on the crown thinking his father to be dead. When the king awoke he called for his son : ‘I never thought,’ said the young man, ‘to hear you speak again.’ ‘Thy wish,’ said the old man sadly,

was father, Harry, to that thought ;
I stay too long by thee, I weary thee :
Dost thou so hunger for my empty chair,
That thou wilt needs invest thee with my honours,
Before thy hour be ripe ? O foolish youth !
Thou seek'st the greatness that will overwhelm thee.

2. Henry V.—Henry V., when he succeeded his father, was not really overwhelmed by his greatness. He led his countrymen against France, won the battle of Agincourt (1415), and made the King of France promise to leave the crown of that country to him after his own death.

3. Henry VI.—Henry V. died before the King of France, and left an infant who became Henry VI. The child was crowned King of France as well as King of England ; but the French detested their English conquerors and gradually drove them out of the country.

When Henry VI. grew up he was gentle and pious, but he had no strength or wisdom. He could no more keep England in order than he could reconquer France. The great nobles soon found out that they had no longer a

master, and began to ill-treat people who were not so rich as themselves. They had followers who were always ready to fight for them, to whom they gave uniforms, which were called liveries; so that they had little armies to do their bidding. If anyone went to law with them, they usually took care that the jury should be made up of their friends, who would declare them to be in the



BOWMAN WITH CROSSBOW.

right, whether they were so or not; and sometimes they sent their followers to beat or even to kill anyone who opposed them.

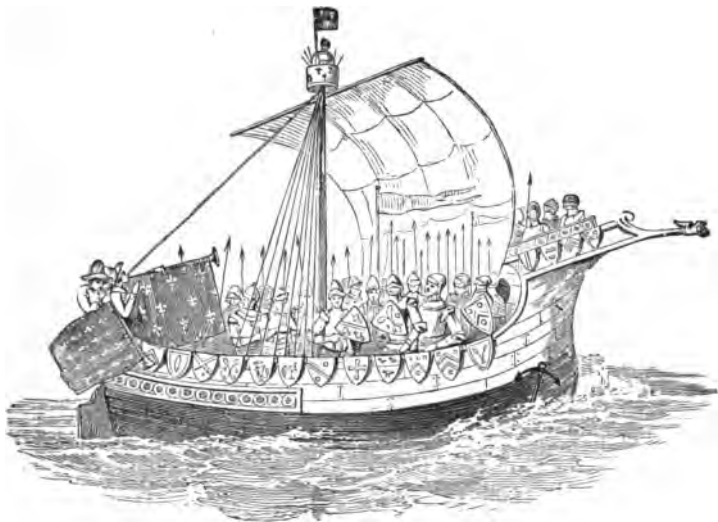
4. The Wars of the Roses.—All who wanted better government knew that they could not get it from Henry, and looked for help to one of his kinsmen, the Duke of York. After a while the king went mad, and the lords

named the Duke of York Protector or, as we should say, Regent. If Henry had remained mad for the rest of his life, the duke might have gone on ruling in his name. Unfortunately, he was sometimes mad and sometimes sane, and was not much wiser when he was sane than when he was mad. The first time he was better he drove the duke from his presence. A war began, which is known as the 'Wars of the Roses,' because the House of Lancaster, to which the king belonged, had a red rose for its badge or mark, and the House of York a white one. At last the Duke of York, who was descended from a son of Edward III. who was older than John of Gaunt, from whom Henry was descended, claimed the throne by right of birth; Henry was then out of his mind, but the queen led an army against the duke, defeated him at Wakefield, and had his head cut off and put over the gates of York, with a paper crown on it by way of mockery.

5. Edward IV.—The duke's eldest son was a better general than his father, and won a battle at Towton (1461); after which he became king as Edward IV., in the place of Henry, who was placed in confinement. After a while Edward offended the Earl of Warwick—who was called the 'king-maker,' because he had done much to help Edward and to make him king. He now helped Henry and put him on the throne again. Edward fled across the sea, but he soon came back. There was a great battle at Barnet, when Warwick was killed. Edward became king again, and Henry was placed in the Tower and soon afterwards murdered.

6. Edward V. and Richard III.—When Edward died

he left two boys, the elder of whom was Edward V. His mother's relations seemed likely to rule in his name, but his father's brother Richard, the Duke of Gloucester,



SHIP, FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

was resolved not to submit to them. He was brave and warlike, a good captain, and a man who behaved well to those who were not likely to hurt him. He had no pity for anyone who tried to hinder him from doing anything that he wished to do. Men, in those days, had grown used to cruelty and murder, and Richard thought no more of killing those who stood in his way than he would have thought of killing flies.

Richard had all whom he now thought likely to oppose him put to death. He placed the young princes in the

Tower of London, and persuaded Parliament to accept him as King Richard III. The princes never came out of the Tower. Two men were sent to smother them with pillows as they were sleeping. Nearly two hundred years afterwards their skeletons were found buried at the foot of a staircase.

Richard did not reign long: Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, a distant kinsman of the Lancaster family, landed in England. When the two rivals met in battle at Bosworth Field (1485), many of Richard's own followers deserted him; and Richard, knowing that he had no hope of gaining the day, rushed into the thick of the fight and was slain. His helmet with the crown upon it was picked up and placed on Henry's head.

A'-gin-court: in the north of France, not very far from Calais.
Bos'-worth Field: in Leicestershire.
char'-it-able: kind to the poor.
de-test'-ed: hated.
ju'-ry: a body of men who in a

court of law have to decide upon disputed cases.
re-bel'-lion: an uprising against a king or a regular power.
sane: in his right mind; not mad.
the Tower: of London.

CHAPTER XV.

THE PASTON FAMILY.

1. **A Collection of Letters.**—During the Wars of the Roses the country had been full of disturbance, and all who were not very rich and powerful longed for the return of quiet times. We are the better able to understand the nature of these troubles, because there has been preserved a collection of letters written in the midst of them by members of the family of Paston.

2. John Paston and his Wife.—John Paston was a Norfolk gentleman, whose wife, Margaret Paston, had much difficulty in managing his estates when he was away from home. She was very fond of her husband, and on one occasion, when he was ill in London, she wrote to him, telling him how she had rather have him at home to nurse than have a new gown, ‘though it were of scarlet.’

3. The Manor of Gresham.—One of the manors or estates belonging to John Paston was the Manor of Gresham. A young peer, Lord Molynes, claimed it without any right at all, and sent his men to take possession of it. If Paston had lived in these days, he would at once have gone to law, and Lord Molynes would not only have lost the estate, but have been severely punished. At that time it was dangerous to go to law with a peer, and all that Paston thought it wise to do for some time was to wait upon his lordship, and to entreat him not to behave so unjustly. As, however, Lord Molynes showed no desire to act uprightly, Paston took possession of a house on what was really his own land, and sent his wife and a party of his servants to live in it, whilst he was away in London on business.

After Margaret Paston had been in the house about three months, she saw about a thousand of Lord Molynes’ men approaching, with the nobleman’s agent at their head. They were armed, some with guns, some with bows and arrows. They had also long poles with hooks at their ends to pull down the house, and pans with fire in them to burn it. When they reached the house they seized Margaret and carried her out, after which they deliberately wrecked the whole building. They told her

that if they had caught her husband, he should not have escaped alive.

4. John Paston goes to Law.—All this happened before the Wars of the Roses began, and it shows how little Henry VI. was able to keep order and to do justice. Paston, however, who was not easily discouraged, tried to get Lord Molynes and his agent punished for their violence, and charged them with it at the assizes in the next year. In those days, just as it would be now, the question whether these men were guilty or not guilty was settled by the verdict of a jury, which is chosen by the sheriff of the county. In our times the sheriff takes care to have an impartial jury by selecting the jurymen in alphabetical order. In the reign of Henry VI. he selected them as he pleased, or, more often, as some great people, whom he was afraid to offend, ordered him to do. The sheriff now told Paston that he had been ordered by the king to choose jurymen who were sure to acquit Lord Molynes whether he had acted legally or not.

If Paston could not punish Lord Molynes, he thought he might do something with the men who had been employed by him, and he even offered the sheriff a bribe to get justice done. The sheriff would have had no objection to receive a bribe, but he could do nothing for Paston in this matter. The Duke of Norfolk, as well as Lord Molynes, expected him to have the men acquitted, and the king was also anxious that favour should be shown them. Of course it is extremely improbable that Henry VI. wanted the sheriff to do injustice, but he was at the mercy of his courtiers, who used his name and influence as suited them best.

5. John Paston assaulted.—Some time after these proceedings the king, who, whenever his mind was clear enough to think of matters of State, wished to do his duty, sent the Duke of Norfolk into the county of Norfolk to inquire into disturbances which had taken place. The great offenders were the retainers of Lord Scales, who, next to the duke, was the most powerful personage in Norfolk. They assembled themselves in bands, and, fully armed, sallied forth to misuse anyone who had displeased them. They broke into churches, and wounded and even attempted to kill men kneeling before the altar. Among those who were ill-treated was John Paston. As he was entering the cathedral at Norwich, with his servants, he was attacked by a party of ruffians. One of his servants received a sword-cut on the head, and he was himself seized, and would probably have been killed, if his friends had not rescued him.

6. Another Outrage.—On the same day an uncle of Paston's wife, Philip Berney, was riding along the highway, when a shower of arrows wounded the horses on which he and his servant were seated. Berney was beaten over the head with a bow and dragged off. Though he was not killed on the spot his health was so shaken that he died not long afterwards. The men who did these things were not common robbers. They were supported by the great lords whose followers they were, and no one dared to punish them. Even the arrival of the Duke of Norfolk did no permanent good, and when the king went out of his mind, and the Wars of the Roses began, matters grew even worse.

ac-quit'-ted: set free; adjudged innocent.

as-sis'-es: the sittings of a court held in the counties twice a year, when cases are tried by a judge and jury.

court'-iers: the attendants on a king.

de-lib'-er-ate-ly: coolly; of set purpose or intent.

dis-turb'-ance: an uproar; break-

ing of the peace.

im-par'-tial: fair; not favouring one side more than another.

le'-gal-ly: lawfully; rightfully.

per'-man-ent: lasting; abiding.

re-tain'-ers: men depending upon a lord, and going about armed to carry out his wishes.

sher'-iff (literally *shire-reeve*): one appointed to provide for the execution of the law in a county.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE PASTON FAMILY (*continued*).

1. Wardship and Marriage.—Besides the hardships which came upon the peaceable inhabitants of England in consequence of the king's weakness, there were other hardships which fell upon young persons in consequence of the state of the law. In the days of the early Norman kings when the possession of land brought with it the duty of fighting for the king as a knight, provision had been made for cases where the owner of the land was either a boy who was too young to fight, or a girl who would never be able to fight at all. The king, or the lords from whom the lands were held, had the right of wardship over the children, and took possession of their lands and estates till the boy grew up or the girl was married to a husband who would fight in her place; and he also claimed the right of finding a wife for the boy or a husband for the girl. It was only what the father would have done if he had been still alive, as young men and women were expected to marry—as is still the case

with girls in France—those who were chosen for them, and not those who were preferred by themselves.

2. Stephen Scrope.—Parents and guardians having these rights, too often attempted to make money by means of their children or wards. A neighbour of Paston's, Stephen Scrope, had suffered much in consequence of the evil system. When he was about twelve his step-father, Sir John Fastolf, who was his guardian, sold his wardship to one of the judges, who thereby obtained the income of his estate. After three years the judge sold his wardship back to Fastolf. The judge had neglected the boy so that he fell ill, and had done his best to ruin the estate. Young Scrope when he grew up was bitterly angry with his step-father. 'He bought and sold me like a beast,' he wrote, 'against all right and law.'

In later years Scrope treated his own children just as Fastolf had treated him. 'For very need,' he wrote, 'I was fain to sell a little daughter I have for much less than I should have done.' When he was fifty years old he tried to improve his fortune by a marriage with Paston's sister Elizabeth.

3. Elizabeth Paston.—Elizabeth was about twenty years of age. The lot of a girl in those days was often hard, even whilst she was at home. It was reported of her that 'she hath, since Easter, the most part been beaten once in the week or twice, and sometimes twice in one day, and her head broken in two or three places.' No wonder once the letter-writer reported that 'she was never in so great sorrow as she is nowadays,' or that she was quite ready to marry even old Stephen

Scrope. When the subject was mentioned she said that she would prefer Scrope to any other man if she could be sure that he was not in debt. She seems to have been a prudent young lady, but after all she did not marry Scrope.

4. Margery Paston.—Not long after this John Paston died, and was succeeded in his estates by Sir John Paston, his eldest son. The bailiff who looked after Sir John's estates was a certain Richard Calle, who had always been faithful to his master. Even in those days, when marriages were made by bargaining, young people sometimes objected to the process. Richard Calle and Sir John's sister Margery fell in love with one another, and were anxious to be married. Sir John and the whole family were, however, offended by the proposal of the young lady, not only to please herself in the choice of a husband, but to choose one who was beneath her in rank. One of her brothers wrote to Sir John that, even if his father had been alive and had consented to the match, he would never have allowed his sister 'to sell candle and mustard in Framlingham.' It does not appear that Margery had any intention of setting up a grocer's shop, but this was the young man's way of expressing his displeasure.

5. The Church and the Laws of Marriage.—There was one way in which Margery could free herself from the control of her brothers. For centuries all matters relating to marriage had been judged by the Church and not by the king. In one way the Church had been excessively strict. It had extended very far the limits of relationship within which marriage could not take place,

so that even very distant cousins were forbidden to marry; and had even ruled that persons who had stood godfather and godmother to the same child were to be held as near relations, and therefore to be prevented from marrying. On the other hand, it took under its protection those who wished to marry in defiance of their parents or guardians, by enacting that a man and a woman who, being unmarried, used words to one another which implied an actual promise of marriage, even if those words were heard by none but themselves, were indissolubly united, and that it then became the duty of the clergy to complete the union by the final ceremony without further question.

6. Margery's Marriage.—The difficulty was thus easily solved. The pair went before the Bishop of Norwich. Margery assured him that Richard had engaged himself to her, and that she had engaged herself to Richard. If she had not spoken plainly, she added, she was quite ready to use words still more strong than those which she had employed. After this there was no more to be said. Margery became the wife of Richard Calle, and Calle was too good a bailiff to be dismissed. He continued to serve Sir John, but Sir John never forgave his sister, nor did he again treat her as one of the family.

bail'-iff: one who manages land or an estate for another; a sheriff's officer who enforces the payment of debt.

de-fi'-ance: in spite of opposition.

en-act'-ing: causing to be made law.

es-tates': property in land.

ex-cess'-ive-ly: beyond what is

right and proper; exceedingly.

Fram'-ling-ham: in Suffolk.

guard'-i-an: one appointed to take charge of another.

in-dis'-sol-ub-ly: that an never be broken or undone.

pre-fer'-red: chosen.

pru'-dent: careful; looking to the future.

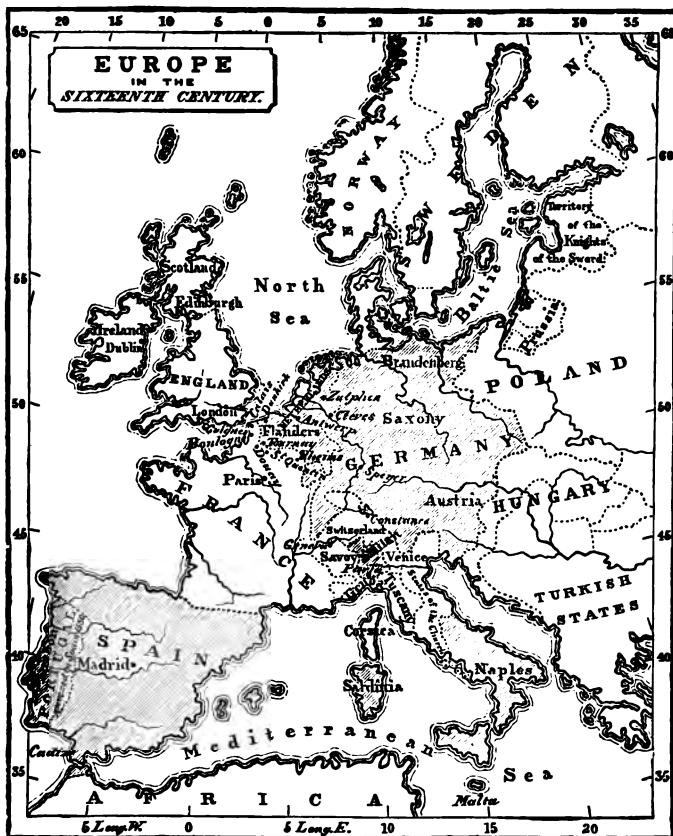
CHAPTER XVII.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE TUDOR MONARCHY.

1. Henry VII. keeps the Peace.—The first king of the Tudor family married Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV., in order to unite the claims of the two families of York and Lancaster. He was not a popular man, because he was not gay and given to amusing himself as Edward IV. had been, and because he liked to gather as much money as he could, and to spend as little as possible. Rich men were often compelled to pay large sums to him on all sorts of excuses. Yet most people were glad to have him on the throne, because he not only kept the peace and took care that armed men should not throw the country into disturbance as they had done during the Wars of the Roses, but prevented the nobles from oppressing men who were less powerful than themselves.

2. The Court of Star Chamber.—Henry knew that the nobles had been able to do as they pleased, because the juries at the assizes in the country were made up of men who were either their dependents or were too frightened by their threats to bring in a verdict of guilty against anyone whom they favoured, even if there was no doubt that the accused person had committed a robbery or a murder. To stop this mischief Henry set up the Court of Star Chamber. A hundred and fifty years afterwards this court became cruel, but when it was first established it did much good. It was made up of some of the king's officers, together with one of the judges, and these men were too powerful to be afraid of any nobleman in

England. When, therefore, any riot or disturbance took place, or there was any conspiracy to injure some one



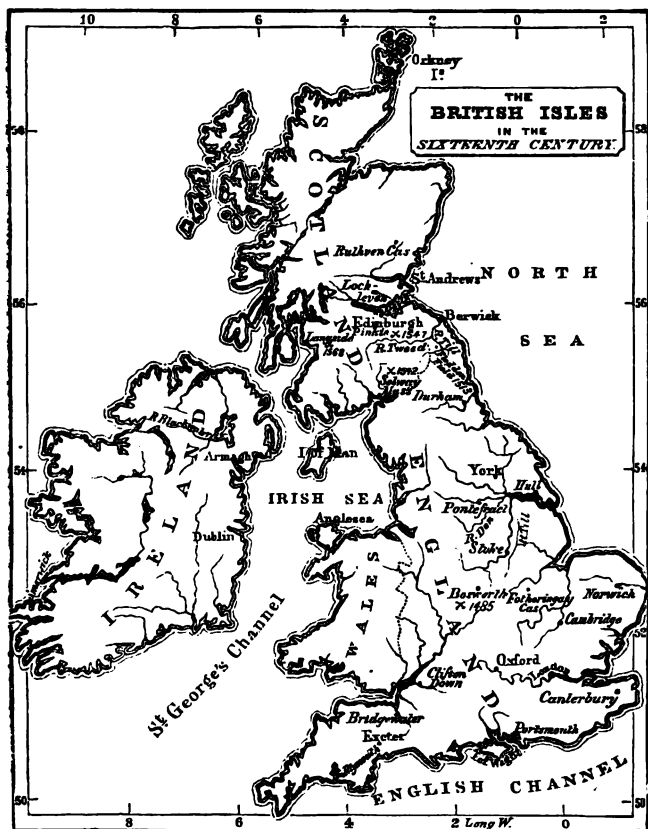
who had given offence to a great man, the Court of Star Chamber fined or imprisoned the wealthiest lord as easily as if he had been a farmer or a blacksmith.

3. Henry's government.—In this way Henry VII. gave to the people peace and security, yet he also gave them what, in the long run, cannot be good for any people—the habit of seeing burdens placed on the rich instead of being placed justly and fairly on all in proportion to their means; and the habit of seeing the king do as he pleased without much regard for the law. If one king uses the power of doing as he pleases in order to benefit his subjects, it will not be long before another king arises who does as he pleases to benefit himself.

4. Character of Henry VIII.—The successor of Henry VII. was his son Henry VIII. The new king soon made himself much liked by all the people. He was strong and active, like his mother's father, Edward IV., and he was friendly and familiar with men of all classes. He was also fond of learning, and took delight in the company of men who had read much, or had anything new to tell him about what they had seen. Yet he was extraordinarily vain both of his body and of his mind. Once when a French ambassador waited on him to tell him of the accession of the new King of France, Francis I., Henry held up his own leg and slapped it. 'Your master,' he said, 'cannot show so good a calf to his leg as I can.' Whenever he had made up his mind to get anything nothing would persuade him to give it up. 'Take care,' said his chief minister, Cardinal Wolsey, 'what you put into our master's head, for if it is once there you will never get it out.' Such a man might easily become a tyrant if his wishes were opposed.

5. Henry VIII. and Wolsey.—The king and Wolsey were for a long time engaged making wars upon the

Continent, and in making peace when they were tired of making war. These wars cost a great deal of money,



and on one occasion Henry ordered Wolsey to lay on a tax which had not been granted by Parliament. The people refused to pay, and Henry not only took off the

tax but very shabbily declared that the laying of it on had been all Wolsey's fault. From the beginning of his reign to the end he was always ready to lay the blame on others whose only crime was that they did as he told them to do. He wanted to continue popular because he had no soldiers to keep down the people, and he therefore knew that if the people turned against him he might lose his crown.

6. State of the Monasteries.—Henry and Wolsey found some leisure to give to the affairs of their own country. Very few monks and nuns now lived as well as they had when monasteries were first founded. Most of them were living idle, useless lives, and cared for little more than the forms of religion. Many of them and of the priests were extremely ignorant. Those who are idle and ignorant sometimes become vicious as well. Henry, whose own life was an evil one, was one of those men who find it much more pleasant to reform others than to reform themselves, and he allowed Wolsey to try to improve the clergy by founding schools and colleges, in the hope that by spreading learning he would make the clergy better.

ac-ces'-sion: ascending a throne.

am-bas'-sa-dor: a minister of high rank sent by one sovereign to another.

as-si'-zes: the sittings of a court held in the counties twice a year, at which causes are tried by a

judge and jury.

con-spi'-ra-cy: a plot; a banding together for an evil purpose.

re-form': make better.

ver'-dict: the finding of a jury on a trial.

vic'-ious: depraved; wicked.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE SEPARATION OF ENGLAND FROM ROME.

1. Beginning of the Reformation.—In Germany Martin Luther thought that something more was wanted than an improvement in the learning of the clergy. He taught that men ought to read the Bible for themselves, and to trust in God to help them to be good without trying first to please Him by acts of self-denial. As the pope disapproved of his teaching he renounced all obedience to the pope. Those who followed him were called Protestants. After a little while there were a few Protestants in England, but it was some time before there were many.

2. Henry wants a Divorce.—Henry quarrelled with the pope—in a very different fashion from Luther. He did not want to be better or more religious, but he was tired of his wife, Queen Catherine, who was older than himself and in bad health, and he fell in love with a certain Anne Boleyn. Catherine, before she became Henry's wife, had been married to his elder brother, Prince Arthur, who died young, and Henry now declared it to be wrong to be the husband of a woman who had been his brother's wife, though he had not found this out till he saw Anne Boleyn. He asked the pope to declare the marriage to be no lawful marriage at all. The pope, Clement VII., could not make up his mind what to do. One of the old popes, when the popes were really great, would have done what he thought right and would have taken the

consequences. Clement was not brave enough for this; he was afraid of offending Henry and afraid of offending the Emperor Charles, who was Catherine's nephew. He allowed Wolsey and another cardinal to hold a court in England to hear Henry's complaint, and bade them stop the case after it had been proceeding for some time, by announcing that the trial must be finished at Rome.

3. Henry's Quarrel with the Pope.—Henry knew that the pope only wanted to gain time, and was very angry. He first tried to frighten the pope, and when he did not succeed he got Parliament to pass the 'Act of Appeals,' by which all matters relating to the Church were to be settled in England. He then married Anne Boleyn, having made Thomas Cranmer, on whom he could rely, Archbishop of Canterbury. Cranmer held a court at Dunstable, and pronounced Henry's marriage with Catherine to be no marriage at all. Catherine would have appealed to the pope, but by the new Act she was not allowed to do so. All that she could do was to refuse to accept Cranmer's decision. She said that she had always been the king's lawful wife, and that she was so still. 'I had rather,' she said, 'be a poor beggar's wife and be sure of heaven, than queen of all the world and stand in doubt thereof by reason of my own consent.'

4. Henry Supreme Head of the Church.—Henry could not any longer even pretend to be subject to the pope. He got Parliament to give him the title of 'Supreme Head of the Church of England,' and he beheaded or hanged anyone who refused to acknowledge his new title. As far as the law could throw off the papal authority, the Church of England was now no longer dependent on the

Church of Rome. Neither Henry nor the greater part of his subjects, however, wanted to be Protestants; and Protestants, when they were discovered, were burnt alive as heretics. Many a man went nobly to his death on one side or another, because he refused to declare, at Henry's bidding, that he believed that to be true which in his conscience he believed to be untrue.

5. Suppression of the Monasteries.—Henry was always in want of money, partly to enable him to govern the country, but still more because he was extravagant and had about him a crowd of needy courtiers who were always crying out for help. He therefore shut up the monasteries, first the smaller and then the larger ones, and turned the monks and nuns out into the world, promising to give them pensions, which he often omitted to pay. In order to make it appear that the monks were much worse than they were, he sometimes either frightened the principal monks into confessing that they were guilty of horrible crimes or tempted them to do so by offering them advancement. At Canterbury, for instance, the chief monks made their confession, and were then promoted to be the Dean and Canons of the Cathedral. Either Henry was entirely careless whether a dean and canons were wicked or not, or, which is far more likely, he induced, by his promises, the monks to make a lying confession of guilt.

6. Henry's Tyranny.—Some of the money obtained from the monasteries was spent in providing ships and building forts for the defence of the kingdom; and some was spent in setting up new bishoprics, but the greater part was given away or gambled away. Courtiers grew

suddenly rich, and got rid of their money as easily as they had acquired it, so that they were always asking for more. 'To have a good pennyworth' was a constant phrase at Henry's Court, and to have a good pennyworth did not mean to have full value for money, but to receive a large slice of the abbey lands for nothing at all. Every one who resisted Henry's will suffered for it. Protestants were burnt for their religious opinions, and those who continued to uphold the pope's authority were executed for denying the king's new title as supreme head of the Church. A rising in the North, known as 'the Pilgrimage of Grace,' was so dangerous that Henry thought it wise to promise to listen to the complaints of the insurgents; but as soon as the people returned to their homes he found an excuse for breaking his word and executed the ringleaders.

7. Fall of Cromwell.—Henry's chief minister in all this tyranny was Thomas Cromwell. He had spies everywhere, and scarcely a word could be spoken against the king which was not told to Cromwell. When Cromwell sent a man to be tried, the jury would not dare to acquit him, and so sure was he of this that he once wrote in his note-book that the Abbot of Glastonbury was to be tried and executed, as if the execution must necessarily follow whether he was guilty or not.

At last Cromwell lost the favour of his master. Henry had accused Anne Boleyn of misconduct, and she had been condemned and executed. Since that he married a third wife, Jane Seymour, who had died. He was now in want of a fourth. Cromwell was anxious that he should marry Anne of Cleves, a German lady, because he

wished the king to be friendly with the German princes. Cromwell obtained a picture of the lady which was much better-looking than she was herself. Henry sent for her and married her ; but he thought her so ugly that he divorced her soon afterwards, and allowed it to be understood that he no longer cared to support Cromwell. As everybody else hated Cromwell an Act of Parliament was at once passed to cut off his head. The Parliament did not even take the trouble of hearing witnesses against him or of listening to his defence. He was treated in the same way as he had treated others. After this Henry married two more wives : Catherine Howard, whose head he cut off, and Catherine Parr, who was lucky enough to survive him.

car'-din-al : a dignitary of the Roman Catholic church next to the pope.

cour'-ti-er : a frequenter of the court ; one who flatters.

Dun'-sta-ble : a town in the South of Bedfordshire.

in-due'-ed : led ; persuaded.

in-surg'-ents : rebels ; people in arms against the king.

o-mit'-ted : left out.

pen'-sion : a stated allowance paid to a person for past services.

re-noun'-ced : gave up ; disowned.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE PROTESTANTS.

1. **The Translation of the Bible.**—Cruel as Henry was he was not without a respect for learning and knowledge. He ordered an English translation of the Bible to be made and set up in all the churches, that people might read it. He was particularly anxious that it should be

read because he thought that they would learn from it not to respect the pope, but to pray for kings and those in authority. The result of the translation was not what he intended. Already there were people in England who had read books written by foreign Protestants and who had become Protestants themselves, and now that the Bible was everywhere to be read in English there were many more. These men, as might have been expected, often differed in their opinions, as a text which seemed very important to some of them would seem less important to others ; but they all agreed in disbelieving much which the Church had taught for many centuries ; and many of them used very scornful language in speaking of the clergy and the ceremonies of the Church. One man, for instance, when the priest held up the consecrated bread at the celebration of the Mass, held up a dog in mockery.

2. The Six Articles.—The majority of the people did not wish to change their religion, and Henry felt as they did. A law known as the ‘ Statute of the Six Articles ’ was passed ordering that those who openly defended Protestant doctrines should be put to death. It was impossible to prevent men from thinking by the axe or the stake. ‘ The kingdom of heaven is like to a grain of mustard seed, which indeed is the least of all seeds ; but when it is grown, it is the greatest amongst herbs.’ The learning which Henry had encouraged had set scholars to work to study, and now that the Bible had been translated he could not prevent those who were not scholars from studying as well. The Protestants could not all be right, as they differed from one another in many things ; but

they were all agreed that it was the duty of everyone to search the Scriptures for himself, and not to believe only what the King or the priests told him that he ought to believe. Those who searched for themselves would become brave and self-reliant, and it was much more important that there should be brave and self-reliant men in England than that everyone should hold the right doctrine in everything.

3. Protector Somerset.—When Henry VIII. died he was succeeded by his only son Edward VI. As the new king was still a child, his father had appointed a council to govern in his name. This council Henry had chosen



ANGEL OF HENRY VIII. (1543.)

so that half of the members wished to make religious changes and the other half wished to make none. In this way he hoped that all parties would be satisfied. The new council expressed a great desire to carry out the will of the late king, and agreed that each member should try to remember anything that Henry had wished to have done. They all remembered that Henry had wished to give each of them a large sum of money and to make several of them peers. They at once gave effect to this excellent design and took the money. As for

Henry's real wish that the council should govern, they paid no attention to it, and appointed the young King's uncle, the Duke of Somerset, to be Lord Protector or Regent of the Kingdom.

4. The War with Scotland.—Somerset was one of those men who cannot be content to do one thing at a time. He went to war with Scotland to make the Scots give their young queen, Mary, in marriage to Edward VI. He beat the Scots in a battle at Pinkie near Edinburgh, and burnt and destroyed a great many houses. The Scots naturally grew angry and sent their young queen to France, where she was married to the king's eldest son.

5. The New Prayer-book.—At home Somerset made great changes in the Church. Henry had pulled down a few images in places where the people went in pilgrimages to them and gave money to the clergy of the churches where they were. Somerset pulled them down in all the churches. This pleased the Protestants but displeased everyone else, as people were accustomed to pray to the saints which they represented, and did not like so sudden a change. Chiefly with the help of Archbishop Cranmer a new Prayer-book was drawn up in the English language, which contained some things which were pleasing to the Protestants. Clergymen, too, were allowed to marry, which was so new a thing as to give offence. There was much discontent, and in Devon and Cornwall there was a rebellion which was only suppressed with difficulty.

6. Ket's Rebellion and Somerset's Fall.—It would have been difficult for Somerset to maintain himself in power

if he had committed no other fault than that of forcing on the people a religion which the great majority of them disliked. Besides this he and his friends were greedy and unscrupulous. All the great men tried to get as much money as they possibly could, and took no care for the public welfare. They debased the coinage by the mixing of a large proportion of alloy with the silver, so that they might pay their debts with shillings which were really worth only ninepence or sixpence. They also enclosed lands to feed their sheep on, and turned out hundreds of tenants who had been accustomed to grow corn on them. In Norfolk, Ket, a tanner, assembled thousands of angry men, who pulled down the palings of the enclosures in all the country round. Somerset, though he was himself as greedy as others, was inclined to pity the insurgents, but the other great men brought German soldiers into England and put the rebellion down, and also took away the protectorate from Somerset. When shortly afterwards he attempted to regain power he was tried and executed.

7. Northumberland's government. — Northumberland, into whose hands the government now fell was more greedy and unprincipled than Somerset had been. He introduced a new Prayer-book, more Protestant than the one before it, but his own conduct disgusted Englishmen with Protestantism. He was one of those who made a gain of godliness. There were, indeed, many amongst the Protestants who were living peaceful and religious lives, and some of them were giving money to found schools in which the children of the poor might be freely taught. The mass of people, however, judged Protestantism by

what they saw amongst the great, and thought it to be merely an excuse for plundering.

al-loy': a mixture of one metal with another; thus, a mixture of copper with gold.

ce'-re-mo-nies: the outward forms of religion.

de-bas'-ed: lowered in value by mixing a common metal with a valuable one.

in-surg'-ents: rebels.

pil'-grim-age: a journey to a shrine or other sacred place.

self-re-liant: trusting in or depending upon one's self.

sup-press'-ed: put down.

trans-la'-tion: to change words from one language to another.

CHAPTER XX.

THE CATHOLIC REACTION.

1. Lady Jane Grey.—Edward VI. was a sickly lad. He died of consumption before he grew to be a man. Before he died he appointed Lady Jane Grey, who was Northumberland's daughter-in-law, to be queen after him, as she was a Protestant, and as Northumberland expected her to keep him in power. Edward had no more right to leave the crown to Lady Jane than Edward the Confessor had had to leave it to William the Conqueror. She was as good and religious as Northumberland was wicked, but she suffered because she had been promoted by the influence of her evil father-in-law. Mary, Edward's eldest sister, was welcomed by the whole nation, and entered London in triumph. Jane was sent to prison and Northumberland was put to death.

2. The First Years of Queen Mary.—Mary was now queen, and with almost universal applause she forbade the use of the new Prayer-book and restored the Mass.

There were, however, many persons in England who preferred the Mass to the Prayer-book, but who did not want to submit to the pope. Some of these liked Englishmen to settle their own affairs, whilst others, who had got a share of the abbey lands, were afraid lest the pope should take them away. It was only when the pope promised that these lands should not be required from them that Parliament consented to acknowledge his authority, and re-enacted the old law for the burning of heretics which had been repealed in the reign of Edward VI.

Another thing which Mary did was disliked by her subjects. She married her cousin, the son of the Emperor Charles V., who soon afterwards became King of Spain, as Philip II. Sir Thomas Wyatt with the men of Kent rose in rebellion to prevent the match, but he was overpowered and executed, and poor innocent Lady Jane lost her head in consequence. The queen sent her own sister Elizabeth to the Tower on suspicion, but she did not put her to death.

3. The Protestant Martyrs.—When the law for burning heretics was put in force people learned that there were Protestants who were not greedy adventurers like Northumberland, but brave and resolute believers, ready to sacrifice their lives for their faith. Many of those who were burnt were married clergymen, who stoutly professed their belief in the reality of their marriage. Lawrence Saunders when he was condemned took his child in his arms: ‘If there be no other cause,’ he said, ‘for which a man of my estate should lose his life, yet who would not give it to avouch his child to be legitimate, and his marriage to be lawful and holy?’ The married

clergy, however, were not alone ; rich and poor, gentlemen, tradesmen, and artisans went to the stake with equal alacrity.

At Oxford Bishop Ridley and Bishop Latimer suffered together. Ridley was meek and gentle, Latimer was a bold preacher of righteousness, who had told Northumberland and all his crew of their wickedness to their faces. ‘Be of good comfort, Master Ridley,’ he now said to his brother bishop, ‘and play the man ! We shall this day light such a candle, by God’s grace, in England, as shall never be put out.’ The two were burnt on the spot on which the Martyrs’ Memorial now stands. On that memorial is the figure of Archbishop Cranmer as well as those of Ridley and Latimer. Cranmer had done many evil things. He was weak of will and had been a tool of Henry VIII. and of the wicked men of the reign of Edward VI. ; but he had a strong intellect, and had come to the conclusion that when Scripture was hard to understand, that explanation was true which had been accepted by the writers who lived in the first centuries of the Christian era. He was now terrified by the prospect of death, and to save his life declared his belief to be other than it really was. When he found that in spite of this he was to die, he forgot his cowardice and spoke out. ‘Forasmuch,’ he said, ‘as my hand offended in writing contrary to my heart, therefore my hand shall first be punished ; for, if I may come to the fire, it shall be first burnt ; and, as for the pope, I refuse him as Christ’s enemy and antichrist with all his false doctrine.’ When he was bound to the stake ‘fire being now put to him, he stretched out his right hand, and thrust it into



CRANNER AT THE TRAITOR'S GATE. (*Goodal.*)

the flames and held it there a good space, before the fire came to any other part of his body; where his hand was seen of every man sensibly burning, crying with a loud voice, "This hand hath offended." As soon as the fire got up he was very soon dead, never stirring or crying all the while.'

4. The Last Days of Mary.—There were hearts in England in which a sense of pity for the sufferers, and of anger against the oppressors, was roused by the Protestant martyrdoms. The bulk of the nation learned to detest Mary because she was too fond of the country of her Spanish husband. Philip II. was engaged in war with France, and Mary to please him sent Englishmen to fight on his side. English blood was shed to no purpose, whilst the French troops seized Calais, which Mary had left without proper means of defence. Not long afterwards Mary died, sad and weary of the world, knowing that her sister Elizabeth would succeed her, and would undo everything that she, in the sincerity of her heart, had believed to be her duty.

a-lac'-ri-ty: cheerfulness; briskness.

ap-plause': praise.

art-i-san: one skilled in any art or trade; a mechanic.

con-sump'-tion: a disease of the lungs which gradually wastes away the whole frame.

Mass: the celebration of the Lord's Supper in Roman Catholic churches.

re-en-act'-ed: to enact over again; to pass a law over again.

re-peal': to revoke a law by authority.

Scrip'-ture: the Bible.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE FIRST YEARS OF ELIZABETH.

1. **Elizabeth's Accession.**—Elizabeth was now queen. Her great wish was to keep the peace between the Roman Catholics who wanted to put down the Protestants, and the Protestants who wanted to put down the Roman Catholics. She soon made up her mind not to submit to the pope's authority, for the same reason that she made up her mind never to have a husband, because she did not wish to place herself under anyone. For the same reason she would not allow the Protestants to form churches like those which Calvin had established in Geneva, where the ministers and people managed their own affairs without asking leave of the queen. She resolved that there should be bishops in the Church who should keep the clergy in order, and that the services used should be like those of the second Prayer-book of Edward VI., though there were to be some alterations made. Everybody was to be obliged to attend church, whether he liked it or not; and she hoped that in this way they would grow accustomed to the new services, and so live peaceably with one another. In our own times we should think this to be a great hardship; but we must remember that in Elizabeth's days those who worshipped in one way usually wanted to burn or imprison those who differed from them, and that, in trying to make men worship together, the queen was attempting to stop a worse persecution which would probably lead to civil war. At

all events she was gentler than her father and her sister had been, as she did not burn those who differed in their belief from that of the Established Church, or punish them in any way provided that they attended church and kept their opinions to themselves.

2. Elizabeth's Popularity.—Elizabeth, unlike her sister, kept her popularity to the end, because she was above all an Englishwoman. She never thought of sacrificing the interests of her country to please a king of Spain or any other foreigner. She was pleased to go about amongst her subjects, looking on at their amusements, and sympathising with them in their more serious efforts. She liked to talk of her 'good husbands the people,' and though she had a strong will of her own she liked to exercise it in such a way as to please those whom she called her husbands. Her worst fault was her extreme stinginess. She had very little money, and she was obliged to be very careful in spending it, because the people might perhaps turn against her if she raised more taxes than they had been accustomed to pay. Once she returned a tax which had actually been levied, telling her subjects that she did not need it. Probably no other ruler ever gave up money which he had once received.

3. Mary Queen of Scots.—Elizabeth's chief rival was her first cousin, Mary Queen of Scots. Mary was the grand-daughter of Margaret, the eldest sister of Henry VIII., and claimed to be Queen of England, on the ground that Elizabeth's mother Anne Boleyn had not been the lawful wife of Henry, and that therefore Elizabeth could have no right to the English crown. Mary was a Roman Catholic and her Scottish subjects were Protestants.

After a while she was accused truly—or falsely—of murdering her husband, and of other misdeeds, and having been defeated in the battle, she fled to England. Elizabeth placed her in confinement, thinking it unwise to have at liberty a person who claimed to be Queen of England, especially as the English Catholics, who were very numerous, might be stirred up by her to rise in rebellion in her cause. After she was placed in confinement a rebellion actually did break out, known as the ‘Rising in the North,’ and a plot was formed to assassinate the queen; but the rebellion was suppressed and the assassination plot failed.

4. The Massacre of St. Bartholomew.—It was the more difficult for Elizabeth to keep the peace between Roman Catholics and Protestants, as they were contending with one another for the mastery in most parts of the Continent. In France the young king, Charles IX., had agreed to tolerate the Huguenots, as the Protestants were called in that country. The Duke of Guise, who was the leader of the Roman Catholics, sent a man to shoot Coligny, the Admiral of France and the leader of the Huguenots. The villain succeeded in wounding Coligny, but did not kill him. Guise feared lest when Coligny recovered he would take vengeance upon those who had wished to be his murderers, and he talked of the danger of a rising of the Huguenots, whose object, he asserted, was not merely to punish himself but to overthrow the government as well. The king’s mother and brother took his part, and urged the king to put Coligny to death. Charles held out for some time, but he was a weak and excitable lad, and he was frightened at the stories which were told him of his

danger. Losing all self-possession he threw himself headlong into their plan of massacre. 'Since you will kill the admiral,' he said, 'kill them all! Kill all the Huguenots in France, that none may be left to reproach me! Kill them all!' The queen, nothing loth, quietly made her preparations. Every Catholic was to fasten a white band round his arm that he might not be slaughtered by mistake. At night, soldiers were placed in the streets and the mob of Paris was warned to support them. At the moment of dawn a great bell boomed out the signal, and at the sound a chosen party rushed to the house of Coligny, and completed the murder of the wounded admiral. His body was flung out of window that Guise might see that he was really dead. One of Guise's companions kicked the dead man in the face. Other parties went off to the homes of known Huguenots and slew them in their beds, or if they succeeded in escaping, cut them down and shot them in the streets. The king took his post with his gun at the window of his palace, firing it amongst the flying multitude, and shouting out 'Kill! kill!' at every shot.

5. The Beginning of the Dutch Republic.—Terrible stories came from other countries besides France. Philip II. of Spain, who had been the husband of Queen Mary of England, ruled over the Netherlands. He did his utmost to prevent any of the people becoming Protestants. He had so many of them burnt, and laid on such heavy taxes, that at last some of them rose in rebellion. He had good generals and brave armies, and he did his best to put the rebellion down. His soldiers were very cruel, and when they took a town they massacred not only the

men but also the women and children in it. The rebels, however, struggled on, and by-and-by there was a free Dutch Republic which Philip could not conquer.



A 'MILLED' HALF-SOVEREIGN OF ELIZABETH. (1561-1572.)

ass-ass'-in-ate: to kill secretly or by surprise.

Cal'-vin: one of the early Protestant reformers.

Established Church: the Church acknowledged by law as the

Church of any country.

Ge-ne'-va: a town in Switzerland.

pop-u-lar'-i-ty: held in great favour by the people.

ri'-val: one pursuing the same object as another.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE STRUGGLE WITH SPAIN.

1. **Growth of Protestantism in England.**—One result of the cruelties of Charles IX. and Philip was that young Englishmen were inclined to take part against the religion of the men by whom such things were done. The rising generation for the most part took the Protestant side, and were eager to find employment in attacking Spain—which was the most powerful of the Roman Catholic nations. Though no war with Spain was declared by the queen,

many a stout younger son crossed the sea to take service under the Dutch Republic, against Philip's soldiers. Still more popular was maritime adventure, and in those days maritime adventure was very much what we should now call piracy. Bold sailors, like Hawkins and Drake, made their way to the Spanish territory in America, which stretched from Florida to the Straits of Magellan, to carry off rich prizes of gold and silver which were produced from the mines, and were sent across the ocean to enable the King of Spain to pay his armies. Those who did these things had no idea that they were doing anything wrong. They were only taking that which, if it had been left to Philip, would be used to make war upon innocent Protestants, who were struggling to escape from the stake and from the torture chamber of the Holy Inquisition, a Spanish court which first tormented and then burnt those whom it charged with heresy.

2. The Roman Catholic Missionaries.—When Elizabeth had been queen for more than twenty years the Roman Catholics began to fear that all Englishmen would become Protestants unless something could be done to hold them back. Many young men who had remained constant to the old religion, and had left the country rather than abandon it, now returned as missionaries. Elizabeth was frightened, as she knew that the pope had declared that she was not the true queen, and she feared lest, if many were converted to the Roman Catholic Church they would try to make Mary queen instead of herself. With the help of the Parliament she made harsh laws against the missionaries. If any of them converted one of the queen's subjects, or if he only said Mass, he was to be put to death

as a traitor, because she believed that no one could be a loyal subject who thought that the pope had a right to depose the queen, and she did not doubt that all Roman Catholics thought that. Even Roman Catholics who were not priests were heavily fined if they refused to attend the Protestant churches, and many of them were imprisoned and treated with great cruelty.

3. Throgmorton's Plot, and the Association.—Cruelty usually provokes a spirit of vengeance, and some young Roman Catholics headed by Francis Throgmorton resolved to murder Elizabeth. They were detected and executed. To preserve Elizabeth, the House of Commons called upon all loyal Englishmen to form an Association, binding themselves to avenge her death, if she were murdered, not only upon the murderers, but on the person for whose sake the murder was committed, or in other words, to put Mary to death.

4. Help sent to the Dutch.—In Holland the great leader of the Dutch in their struggle against Philip of Spain—the Prince of Orange—was assassinated by a Roman Catholic. His son Maurice was only a boy, and Elizabeth sent soldiers to help him. She sent to command them, a foolish, selfish man, of whom she was very fond, Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, a son of that wicked Duke of Northumberland, who had ruled England in the time of Edward VI., and she did not pay the men after they reached Holland, so that her assistance was of little use. This expedition cost the life of Sir Philip Sidney. Though he was young he was well known as a writer, and as a brave soldier and courteous gentleman. When he was wounded, a cup of water was

brought to him to quench his thirst. He saw a common soldier, who had also been wounded, lying near him in agony, and bade him drink the water. 'Your need,' he said, 'is greater than mine.'



ROBERT DUDLEY, EARL OF
LEICESTER.

5. The Babington Conspiracy.—A new plot was formed by Anthony Babington to murder Elizabeth; but this plot, like that of Throgmorton, was discovered in time, and Babington was executed with his accomplices. Thousands of Englishmen believed that as long as Mary lived, there would be fresh attempts to murder Elizabeth, to make room on the throne for a Roman Catholic queen. Elizabeth's ministers

thought so too. They declared that they had found letters in Mary's handwriting which proved that she knew of Babington's plans. Whether this was true or not, Mary was accused of sharing in the conspiracy and was executed at Fotheringay.

6. The Sailing of the Armada.—As long as Mary lived, Philip was afraid to attack England, lest Mary should be put to death. As soon as she was executed, he prepared a great fleet to sail up the English Channel and to carry from Flanders a large Spanish army with which he expected to be able to overpower Elizabeth. In 1588 the

Invincible Armada, as it was called, sailed from Spain. Elizabeth mustered her subjects, but though her soldiers were brave men they had never been disciplined as an army, and the chief hope of Englishmen was that the Spaniards would not be able to land. Everything depended on the skill and courage of Elizabeth's sailors.

7. The Defeat of the Armada.—As the Spanish fleet sailed up the Channel, pursued by English vessels, it presented a formidable appearance. The ships of which it was composed were of enormous size, whilst the English vessels were much smaller. The little ships, however, could fight better than the large ones. They were better built and could sail two feet to the Spaniards' one, and therefore could easily overtake the enemy, and could also escape from him whenever they wished to do so. So high out of the water were the ships of the Armada that their shot usually passed over the decks of their English assailants, whilst the English shot seldom missed the broad mark which the enemy presented. At last the Spaniards took refuge in Calais. The English commander sent in fire-ships and drove them out. A fierce gale arose and drove the Armada past the coast of Flanders, where the Spanish army was waiting to be carried over to England. The unfortunate Spaniards were driven before the wind northwards. Every day one or other of these floating castles was either driven on shore, or pierced with English shots. When at last the English turned back, the storm did not cease. Provisions ran short, and the decks of the Armada were cumbered with the sick and dying. The Spaniards tried to make their way home round the north of Scotland and the west of Ireland. Most of them were driven

upon the rocks and wrecked, and scarcely more than a third of the number which had left Spain succeeded in



WITH HIS WHITE HAIR UNBONNETED THE STOUT OLD SHERIFF COMES.

reaching home. In England the triumph was great. The medal which Elizabeth ordered to be struck to commemorate her success bore the motto, 'God blew with His wind, and they were scattered.'

ac-com'plice: a companion in crime.

as-sail'-ant: one who attacks another.

con-spi'-ra-cy: a banding together for an evil purpose; a plot.

dis'-cip-lin-ed: in a state of good order or discipline.

Foth'-er-in-gay: a castle in Northamptonshire.

Flor'id-a: a peninsula in the

south of what is now the United States.

ma'-ri-time: belonging to or relating to the sea.

pi'-ra-cy: robbery on the high seas.

Strait of Magellan: the strait between the southern point of America and the island of Tierra del Fuego, leading from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE LAST YEARS OF ELIZABETH.

1. **The Expedition to Cadiz.**—After the defeat of the Armada, vengeance was taken upon Spanish ports in Europe and in America. A great expedition was sent to attack Cadiz. Amongst those who took part in the undertaking was the young Earl of Essex, a dashing young man, who was too vain and impatient to do anything really great. He grew angry whenever anyone said that there had been enough of fighting, and that it was time to make peace with Spain. One day when he was talking in this way, the wise old Lord Burghley, who had been Elizabeth's minister all through the reign, opened a Bible and showed him the words: 'Bloody and deceitful men shall not live out half their days.' When the fleet reached Cadiz, it found about seventy or eighty

armed Spanish ships lying before the town, and the town itself was well fortified. Yet the English fleet dashed in, each captain trying to thrust his ship into the foremost place. The Spaniards took fright. The soldiers on board the ships hurried on shore, 'as thick as if coals had been poured out of a sack.' They set fire to their own ships and the whole Spanish fleet was



ROBERT DEVEREUX,
EARL OF ESSEX.

WILLIAM CECIL,
LORD BURGHELEY.

soon in a blaze. The town was taken and was then plundered and burnt.

2. Essex's Rising.—Essex was sent to conquer Ireland, a great part of which had never been brought thoroughly under English rule. Essex, however, failed entirely and came back suddenly, though he had been ordered to remain. Elizabeth was very fond of Essex, but she would not allow anyone to disobey her, and she sent

him into confinement in his own house. One day, he rode out with some of his friends into the City, shouting to the citizens to rise in arms to defend him from Elizabeth's ministers. The citizens would not stir, and Essex was tried and executed as a traitor. The citizens, like the great majority of their fellow-countrymen, knew that they owed the peace and quiet in which they lived to Elizabeth's government, and, though Essex was popular amongst them, they did not wish to see their government overthrown by violence whenever it pleased a rash young nobleman to gather armed companions around him.

3. The Queen and the Puritans.—At the beginning of Elizabeth's reign most of the Protestants disliked the ceremonies of the Church, and there had been attempts made in the House of Commons to have these ceremonies changed. Elizabeth, however, always refused to allow changes to be made, and she established a new Court, called the Court of High Commission, and composed of bishops and lawyers, to punish those clergymen who did not conduct the service according to the rules of the Book of Common Prayer. Even the Puritans who disliked Elizabeth's conduct to themselves honoured her for her resolution not to submit to the King of Spain and the pope. One of them, named Philip Stubbs, having written a book in condemnation of the Queen, was sentenced to have his right hand chopped off. As soon as his hand was gone, he took off his cap with the other, waved it in the air, and shouted 'God save Queen Elizabeth!'

4. The Queen and the House of Commons.—The House of Commons was stronger at the end of the reign than it had been at the beginning. No one could sit in the House

who did not take an oath acknowledging the Queen's supremacy over all ecclesiastical persons and causes. As no Roman Catholic could take this oath conscientiously, no Roman Catholic could sit in the House of Commons. At the beginning of the reign there were many Roman Catholics and few Protestants. At the end of the reign there were many Protestants and few Roman Catholics. The result was that whereas when Elizabeth came to the throne the Protestant House of Commons only had a minority of Englishmen on its side, after the defeat of the Armada it could count on the support of the majority. For this reason Elizabeth had to treat it with greater respect. At first she scolded the members when they disagreed with her, and even sent some of them to prison. During the last years of her life she did not venture to treat them otherwise than respectfully.

5. The Monopolies.—The last time Elizabeth met Parliament, she showed that she knew how to give way gracefully. She had always tried to live as economically as she could, and had often behaved very stingily. She did not like to tax her people more than was absolutely necessary, as she knew that, however much they admired her, they might turn against her if they had to pay her much more than they had paid to her father. Yet there were many persons whom she wished to reward, and she hit upon the idea of granting them monopolies—that is to say, the sole right of selling some particular article. As they always charged more for the articles than the price which would have been put upon them if all the Queen's subjects had had a right



SHAKESPEARE AND HIS FRIENDS. (*Faæd.*)

to sell them, the buyers began to complain. There was an outcry in the House of Commons. Elizabeth at once promised to recall the monopolies. 'I have ever used,' she said, 'to set the last judgment day before mine eyes, and so to rule as I shall be judged to answer before a Higher Judge, to Whose judgment-seat I do appeal, that never thought was cherished in my heart that tended not to my people's good.'

6. Death of Elizabeth.—At last Elizabeth died, full of years and honours. Before her death Lord Mountjoy succeeded—where Essex had failed—in completing the conquest of Ireland. In England there was more liberty than anywhere on the Continent of Europe, except among the Dutch. There were sharp punishments for all who were thought to wish to overthrow the government, but those who had no desire to do this might think as they pleased and speak as they pleased. Great writers arose at the end of Elizabeth's reign. Spenser wrote his 'Faery Queen,' and Shakespeare wrote many of his wonderful plays. Hooker, too, taught men to be thoughtful in their religion, and Bacon began to pour forth his wise thoughts in politics and philosophy. There would be disputes enough in the future, but for the present the wisest men were attempting to work together instead of struggling for the mastery.

Ca'-diz: a port in the South of Spain.

con-sci-en'-ti-ous-ly: faithfully; regulated by a regard for conscience.

ec-cle-si-as'-tic-al: belonging to the Church.

ec-o-nom'-ic-al-ly: saving; spend-

ing money very carefully.

ma-jor'-i-ty: the larger number.

mi-nor'-i-ty: the smaller number.

phi-lo'-so-phy: wisdom.

su-pre'-ma-cy: the highest authority or power.

trait'-or: one who betrays or rebels against his king or his country.

CHAPTER XXIV.

JAMES I. AND THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

1. James I. and the Puritans.—Elizabeth was succeeded by James VI., the King of the Scots, who was descended from the eldest sister of Henry VIII., and who became James I. of England, though the Scottish Parliament continued to meet at Edinburgh, and was not united to the English Parliament which met at Westminster. One of James's first difficulties was with the Puritans. Their ministers did not now ask to separate from the Church of England, but only to



JAMES I.

be allowed to leave out some parts of the service, and to give up the use of the surplice, and of some ceremonies which they thought to be superstitious. James sent for a few of them to Hampton Court to hear what they had to say, but he soon lost his temper and sent them away without doing anything to satisfy them.

2. James and the House of Commons.—When Parlia-
VI.

ment met, the House of Commons wished to help the Puritans, because the members thought that it was a pity to prevent good men from preaching because they would not wear surplices. James, however, would not listen to the Commons. The dispute about the Puritans was not the only matter which was likely to lead to a quarrel. James had fancied that when he was King of England he would be very rich, and began to spend money freely as soon as he arrived. He soon discovered that a King of England was not so rich as he imagined, and he expected the House of Commons to vote him a large income. When the House talked of his complying with their wishes instead of giving him money, he was very much displeased.

3. The Gunpowder Plot.—The Roman Catholics, like the Puritans, expected James to treat them better than Elizabeth had done. When they found that he did not do so, a few of them resolved to blow up, not only the king and his sons, but the whole Parliament with gunpowder, and to make James's little daughter, Elizabeth, queen ; as she was young enough to be brought up as a Roman Catholic. A little before Parliament met again, these men sent Guy Fawkes to set fire to a large quantity of gunpowder which they had stored up in a cellar under the House of Lords, when the king would come to open Parliament. The secret was, however, betrayed, Guy Fawkes was taken, and most of his fellow-conspirators were seized and put to death.

4. The Great Contract and the Impositions.—In 1610, James asked the House of Commons to agree to the 'Great Contract,' a bargain by which, on condition of

their making him a large grant of money, he was to give up some rights which were burdensome to his subjects. The Commons, before they would agree to the bargain, asked him to abandon his claim to make the merchants pay duties to him on goods exported and imported, unless Parliament allowed him to levy them. These duties, which were called Impositions, because the king *imposed* them without an Act of Parliament, were very unpopular. The king and the Commons, however, nearly came to an agreement both about the Great Contract and about the Impositions; but James wanted more money than the Commons were willing to give, and he dissolved Parliament and broke off the bargain.

5. The Addled Parliament.—After a time James summoned another Parliament; but he soon quarrelled with it, and dissolved it after it had sat for a few weeks. As it did not produce a single law, it became known as the ‘Addled Parliament.’

6. James's Favourites.—James seldom took good advice, because he thought himself too wise to need it. He liked the company of young men who would ride out hunting with him, and would make jokes to amuse him. The first young man to whom he took a fancy was Robert Carr, whom he created Earl of Somerset. Somerset was, however, charged with poisoning one of his friends, and was condemned to death. Though James did not allow him to be executed he never saw him again. Somerset's successor in James's favour was George Villiers, who soon became Earl and at last Duke of Buckingham. James would not allow anyone to be appointed to office who did not first ask Buckingham's

help, so that those who did not like to be humble to Buckingham had no chance of being promoted. The young man soon became enormously rich, and fancied that he understood everything, without taking the trouble to learn anything well.

com-ply'-ing: agreeing to.

con-spi'-ra-tor: one who conspires or plots.

Hampton Court: a royal residence on the River Thames, a few miles above London.

suc-cess'-or: one who follows in the place of another.

su-per-sti'-ti-ous: believing what is absurd or without evidence.

sur'-plice: a white outer garment worn by the clergy.

CHAPTER XXV.

JAMES I. AND SPAIN.

1. The Spanish Marriage Treaty.—James thought that the time was come when Catholic states and Protestant states might live at peace with one another, and he therefore wished to be on good terms with Spain. He proposed that his son, Prince Charles, should marry the Infanta Maria, the daughter of the King of Spain. He was particularly pleased when the Spaniards not only accepted the proposal, but offered to give 600,000*l.* as the marriage-portion of the bride, a sum which would be sufficient to pay a large part of James's debts. He did not understand that what the Spaniards really wanted was either to persuade the prince to declare himself a Roman Catholic, or to obtain from James a promise that the Roman Catholics should be allowed to preach their doctrines freely. Everyone in Spain thought that if the Roman Catholic clergy were

allowed to go about at liberty, they would convert so many Englishmen that Protestantism would soon be put down.

2. The Thirty Years' War.—This was exactly what English Protestants were afraid of, so that James was even more unpopular than before, especially as a war, known as the Thirty Years' War, in which the Roman Catholic princes and some of the Protestant princes took opposite sides, had begun in Germany. Most Englishmen were displeased at hearing that the Roman Catholics were getting the best of it, especially as the leader of the Protestants, Frederick the Elector Palatine, was James's son-in-law. When Frederick was driven out of part of the palatinate over which he ruled Englishmen were anxious to regain for him what he had lost, and James called another Parliament asking it to vote him money. As, however, he said he must send ambassadors to treat for peace before he could go to war, Parliament only gave him a small sum, waiting to see what he would resolve to do when the ambassadors returned.

3. The Monopolies and the Fall of Lord Chancellor Bacon.—The Parliament had thus time to attend to affairs at home. James, as Elizabeth had done before, had granted many monopolies, empowering certain persons to be the sole manufacturers or sellers of certain articles, such as glass or gold and silver lace. He did this partly to reward his friends, but much more to encourage the introduction into England of new manufactures. Those, however, who had these monopolies, behaved harshly to men who tried to make the articles which they were engaged in manufacturing. The House of Commons com-

plained, and James was obliged to revoke the monopolies. The next thing the House of Commons did was to attack Lord Chancellor Bacon. He was a wise man, and a great philosopher: but when people brought him presents he took them without inquiring whether they had a suit in his court or not. It often happened that those who brought the gifts really wanted to bribe him to pronounce judgment in their favour, and when he decided against them they naturally grew angry. The House of Commons heard of these complaints and impeached Bacon; that is to say, accused him before the House of Lords. He was condemned to lose his office and was punished in other ways besides.

4. The Loss of the Palatinate.—When the ambassadors came back, James asked Parliament for money to enable him to pay troops to fight for the palatinate. The Commons answered by asking him to give up the idea of marrying his son to a Spanish wife. James angrily dissolved Parliament, and as no money had been voted he was unable to defend the palatinate.

5. Charles's Visit to Madrid.—Prince Charles was now entirely under Buckingham's influence, and he and Buckingham set out for Spain in order that he might make love to the Infanta. In those days princes did not go about the world so much as they do now, and the two young men fancied that the Infanta's brother, who was now King Philip IV., would take Charles's visit as so great a compliment, that he would at once help to get back the palatinate for Frederick. When Charles and Buckingham reached Madrid, Philip pretended to be pleased to see them, and sent an am-

bassador to Rome to ask the Pope to consent to the marriage. The Pope replied that he would consent if Charles and his father would grant complete liberty of worship to the English Catholics, and if Philip would swear that James and Charles would keep their promise. Both Charles and his father engaged to do as the Pope wished, but still Philip did not like to swear that they would always observe their engagements. At last Philip told Charles he might marry the Infanta if he wished, but that he must go home without his wife, who would be sent after him in six months, if he really allowed to the Roman Catholics the freedom which he had promised to allow them. Charles was very angry at this, and returned home unmarried.

6. End of James's Reign.—By this time James discovered that he could not get back the palatinate with the help of the King of Spain. He now summoned another Parliament, which wanted to go to war with Spain. James did not wish for that, and proposed to get back the territory with the help of the King of France, by offering to marry Charles to the French Princess Henrietta Maria. Before the marriage treaty was arranged he had to promise to grant the same liberty to the Catholics which he had promised in his treaty with Spain. As both he and his son had already promised the English Parliament that they would do nothing of the kind, they did not venture to ask the House of Commons for money. Yet they were foolish enough to send an army of 12,000 Englishmen under Count Mansfeld, a German adventurer, to reconquer the palatinate, and as neither James nor Charles had money enough to pay the army, the greater part of

the force perished from cold and starvation. James died just at the moment of this great disaster.

ad-ven'-tur-er: one who engages in hazardous enterprises for the sake of money.

com'-pli-ment: an expression of regard: delicate flattery.

dis-as'-ter: a great trouble or calamity.

im-peach'-ed: accused by the House of Commons to the House

of Lords as the court for trying persons accused of wronging the whole nation.

phi-lo'-soph-er: a lover of wisdom; one who acts calmly.

re-voke': to recall; to repeal. *Lat. re* = back again, *voco* = to call.

star-va'-tion: hunger great enough to produce death.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM.

1. Charles's First Parliament.—When Charles I. succeeded to the throne (1625), he fancied that if he called a Parliament it would support him in the war. The members of the House of Commons, when they reached Westminster, thought bitterly of the loss of English lives, and no less bitterly of Charles's breach of promise about the Roman Catholics. They knew that Buckingham did what he pleased with the young king, and they therefore refused to grant more than a very small amount of money, unless Charles would listen to other counsellors who were wiser than Buckingham. Rather than agree to this Charles dissolved Parliament. He then gathered together enough money to send a fleet and army to attack Cadiz; but the expedition failed entirely, and Charles, being without money to pay the sailors and soldiers, or to carry on the war at all, was obliged to summon another Parliament.

2. Charles's Second Parliament.—The second Parlia-

ment would probably have been contented if Charles would have dismissed Buckingham, but Charles would not do it, and, in those days, there was no way to compel a king to send away a minister unless he liked to do so. The Commons, therefore, impeached Buckingham, and accused him of many crimes, thinking that if he were adjudged to be guilty he could not possibly remain in the king's service. Charles, however, retained Buckingham, and dismissed the Parliament.

3. The Forced Loan and the War with France.—Charles honestly believed that Buckingham was good and wise, and that the House of Commons only attacked him from the meanest motives. He therefore resolved to go on with the war, and forced all persons with property to lend him money, whether they liked it or not. Many of those who refused to pay money which had not been granted by Parliament were sent to prison. All the money he got was, however, wasted. He went to war with France on behalf of the Protestants of Rochelle, who were attacked by their own king. Buckingham was sent in command of a fleet and army to protect Rochelle, but he failed as ignominiously as the fleet sent to Cadiz had failed.

4. The Third Parliament of Charles and the Petition of Right.—Charles could not bear to give up his attempt to help the French Protestants, and he called a third Parliament asking again for money. The House of Commons in reply, drew up the Petition of Right, asking him to acknowledge that it was the right of his subjects not to pay loans or taxes which had not been voted in Parliament; not to be sent to prison without knowing what offence they were charged with, so that they might be

bailed or tried; not to have soldiers billeted in their houses unless they wished it; and not to be subjected to martial law. Charles resisted long, but when he found that he could have no money unless he gave way, he



CHARLES I. (*Van Dyck.*)

consented to the Petition. The London citizens rang the bells merrily, and lit bonfires in the streets. Buckingham went to Portsmouth to start on another expedition to Rochelle, but before he went on board, he was murdered

by an officer named John Felton, whom he had once dismissed from the king's service.

5. Breach between Charles and the Parliament.—When Parliament next met, there was a fresh dispute about



WIFE OF CHARLES I. (*Van Dyck.*)

the meaning of the Petition of Right. Charles thought it did not forbid him from raising customs without consent of Parliament, whilst the Commons thought it did. The dispute grew the hotter, as Charles and the Commons differed in their religious views. The Commons wished

Puritan opinions and practices to prevail in the Church, whilst Charles wished other opinions and practices to be adopted. Both were in earnest, and both wanted to have the mastery over the country. After some wrangling, the Commons sent for the officers of the Customs House who had taken payment of customs by the king's orders from a member of Parliament. Charles ordered the House to adjourn. When the Speaker rose to signify the king's will, two sturdy members, named Holles and Valentine, rushed forward and, seizing him by the arms, thrust him back into his chair. Then the House passed three resolutions binding them to hold as an enemy of his country everyone who enforced or paid customs which had not been voted by Parliament, as well as everyone who taught other than Puritan doctrines in the Church. The members had scarcely finished voting when Charles arrived with armed men to expel them from the House. He was too late for that, but he dissolved Parliament, and resolved to attempt to govern without summoning another.

ad-journ': to put off a meeting until another day.

bailed: set at liberty on condition that certain persons will engage to pay money if the prisoner does not give himself up to be tried when he is sent for.

bil'-let-ed: to quarter or lodge soldiers.

cus'-toms: taxes paid on goods brought into or sent out of the country.

dis-solve': to separate into parts; when the word is used of Parliament it means that the Parlia-

ment is put an end to, because the members become merely private persons, and so cease to be united in Parliament. **Lat.** *dis* = asunder, *solvo* = to loosen.

ig-no-min'-i-ous-ly: disgracefully. **martial law**: law which exists in time of war or in the army.

Roch-elle': a town in the west of France, on the shores of the Bay of Biscay.

sum'-mon-ing: calling together.

West'-min-ster: the city where the Houses of Parliament met. It has now become part of London

CHAPTER XXVII.

UNPARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT.

1. Peace with France and Spain.—Charles soon made peace with France and Spain, and was therefore no longer in such great want of money as he had been before. If he had ruled as his subjects wished him, he might have gone on much longer than he did without rousing a demand for another Parliament.

2. Laud's Rule in the Church.—Most of Charles's subjects were afraid lest anything should be done in the churches which might remind them of the Roman Catholic worship, and they were much alarmed when they found that the king listened to the advice of Laud, who was Bishop of London, and who was not long afterwards made Archbishop of Canterbury. Neither Laud nor Charles had any wish to adopt the system of the Church of Rome, but they liked the services to be conducted according to the rules in the Prayer-book, as services are conducted at the present day. Clergymen had been accustomed to do much as they pleased. One of them preaching declared that the neighbouring clergymen were all 'dumb dogs.' Another, wanting a seat for some visitors, ran to the end of the church and knocked some men off a bench to make room for them. Laud did quite right in stopping things of this kind; but he roused great opposition when he re-introduced ceremonies which had been long disused, punished those who refused to bow whenever the name of Jesus was

pronounced, and moved the communion tables from the centre of the churches to the eastern end. Many of the clergy who refused to obey were brought before the High Commission Court, which had been set up in Elizabeth's reign. Many of these were turned out of their places, and had to leave the country.

3. The Court of Star Chamber.—The Court of Star Chamber was composed of two judges and of the whole of the Privy Council, sitting without a jury. Before Charles's reign it had been a popular court, doing justice in difficult cases about which a jury composed of ignorant persons might easily go wrong. In Charles's time, it tried people who wrote or spoke against the king and his friends, punishing them by putting them in the pillory and cutting off their ears. As most people disliked the king's proceedings, the court became as unpopular as Laud himself.

4. Ship-money.—A few years after the end of the last Parliament Charles found that he wanted money to send out a fleet to protect English vessels against the French and the Dutch. He did not venture to call a Parliament because, if he had done so, the House of Commons would have asked him to change his ways. He therefore ordered all his subjects to pay ship-money, on the pretext that some of his ancestors had obtained money in this way in very early times. A gentleman from Buckinghamshire, John Hampden, refused to pay, declaring that the law did not allow the king to take money without the consent of Parliament. Of the twelve judges, however, seven declared that the law was on the side of the king, so that Charles continued to levy the ship-money.

Yet though the judges were on his side, the people after reading the arguments of Hampden's lawyers, believed that the law had been broken, and Charles became more unpopular than ever.

5. Disturbances in Scotland.—If Charles's proceedings were disliked in England they were still more disliked in Scotland. He insisted that the Scotch should use a new Prayer-book which they detested. When it was first used in Edinburgh a woman threw a stool at the head of the clergyman who read the service, and afterwards all Scotland rose in insurrection. A General Assembly of the Church of Scotland was held at Glasgow, and the bishops who had been established by James were deprived of their office in defiance of the king. Charles gathered an army and marched to the border to compel the Scots to obey him, but he had not money enough to pay his troops long and he was obliged to grant the demands of his rebellious subjects.

6. The Short Parliament.—The dispute between Charles and the Scots soon broke out again, and Charles, feeling sure that the English people would support him, at last summoned a Parliament after eleven years of arbitrary government. The House of Commons, however, not only asked him to abandon ship-money, but they were preparing to urge him to make peace with the Scots. He at once dissolved Parliament, after so brief a sitting that it has always been known as the Short Parliament.

a-ban'-don: leave; give up; for-sake.

ar'-bit-ra-ry: not bound by rules; despotic.

de-fi'-ance: the act of defying; a challenge to fight.

de-test'-ed: hated.

in-sur-rec'-tion: a rising in re-

bellion against the king or government.

pil'lo-ry: a wooden frame, supported by an upright pillar or post, and having holes through which the head and hands of a criminal were put as a punishment.

pre'-text: excuse.

re-bel'-li-ous: unruly; engaged in rebellion.

ship-money: a tax levied by Charles I. to maintain the coast defences, first upon sea-ports only, and afterwards extended to inland places.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE BEGINNING OF THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

1. **The Earl of Strafford.**—Charles's chief adviser was now the Earl of Strafford, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. Ireland had been completely conquered in Elizabeth's reign, and James had introduced English and Scottish settlers into Ulster, turning out the inhabitants. More Englishmen had since gone to Ireland as colonists, and the English government hoped that the day would come when Ireland, the natives of which were almost entirely Roman Catholic, would become Protestants and submit without resistance to the English government. The Irish, however, clung to their religion, and they now offered to pay an army with which Strafford was to land on the west of Scotland, whilst Charles led an English force over the borders. The Irish hoped that if Charles defeated the Scots with their help he would allow them to worship in their own way. Charles, however, was, as usual, in difficulties for money, and before either he or Strafford were ready to invade Scotland the Scots invaded England, defeated the royal troops at Newburn on the Tyne, and compelled Charles to agree to pay them the expenses of the war.

2. Meeting of the Long Parliament and Execution of Strafford.—To get money to pay the Scots Charles was obliged to summon another Parliament. That body, known as the Long Parliament, met in 1640 and began by impeaching Strafford, that is to say, by a trial in which the Commons appeared as his accusers whilst the Lords sat as his judges. The general belief was that he had intended to bring his Irish army not only against Scotland, but against England itself. He was condemned to death and the king was so frightened that he gave his consent to the execution of the man who had served him faithfully. Before Strafford's trial was begun Laud had been imprisoned and some of the chief ministers of the king had fled beyond the sea. Parliament had its own way now, and forced the king to assent to an Act by which it could never be dissolved without its own consent. He also agreed to abolish the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission.

3. The Ulster Rebellion.—In less than a year after the meeting of the Long Parliament the Irish, who had been despoiled of their lands in Ulster by the English colonists, rebelled, and murdered a large number of Englishmen. Irishmen in other parts of the country joined in this rebellion because they were afraid lest the English Parliament, in which the Puritans had the majority, should persecute them more than they had been persecuted before.

4. The Grand Remonstrance.—There was already a division of parties in the English Parliament. The majority, led by John Pym, insisted on presenting to Charles the Grand Remonstrance, in which they asked

him to choose such ministers as were approved by Parliament, and to allow the Church services to be altered according to the wishes of the Puritans. The minority, following Hyde and Falkland, wished the Prayer-book to be retained, and that if there were to be any changes at all they should be as slight as possible.

5. The Attempt on the Five Members.—As Charles would not grant the request made to him, and as he was supported by the House of Lords, a mob of lads from the City came to Westminster to threaten the lords, and especially the bishops. Charles, in return, charged five members of the Commons and one lord with treason. Amongst the accused persons were Pym and Hampden. As the Commons refused to allow their members to be imprisoned, Charles came to the House to seize them, with four or five hundred armed men and his train. When he arrived he found that the five had disappeared ; and, as the Speaker refused to tell him where they were, he came away baffled. The next day he went into the City, having heard that the members had taken refuge there. The citizens not only refused as decidedly to surrender the accused persons as the House of Commons had done, but turned out in arms to conduct them in triumph to Westminster. Rather than witness the return of his enemies, Charles retired to Windsor and gradually made his way to Yorkshire.

6. The Struggle for the Militia.—So hostile had the two parties become that there was now hardly any hope of ending the quarrel otherwise than by the sword. Those who were for the Prayer-book took the side of the king ; those who were against it, took the side of the

Parliament. In those days there was no regular army in England; but young men who followed their callings as farmers or as shopkeepers in ordinary times, were expected to serve in the militia—as it was called—when- ever there was an invasion or a rebellion. For some months king and Parliament argued on behalf of their respective claims to command the militia. Neither side was able to convince the other, and at last the Earl of Essex was appointed the general of a Parliamentary army, and in August, 1642, the king raised his standard



A TWENTY-SHILLING PIECE OF CHARLES I. STRUCK AT OXFORD, A.D. 1643.

at Nottingham, calling on all loyal subjects to rally round it to preserve their sovereign against rebels. Those who followed the king were known as Cavaliers, and those who followed the Parliament were known as Roundheads. The North and West of England took Charles's side, but the South and East, the richest part of the kingdom, adhered to the Parliament.

a-bol'-ish: do away with; get rid of.

ad-her'-ed: stuck to. Lat. *ad* = to, *hæreo* = to stick.

as-sent': to think or agree with.

host'-ile: unfriendly.

mi-li'-ti-a: a body of men enrolled and drilled as soldiers for home service.

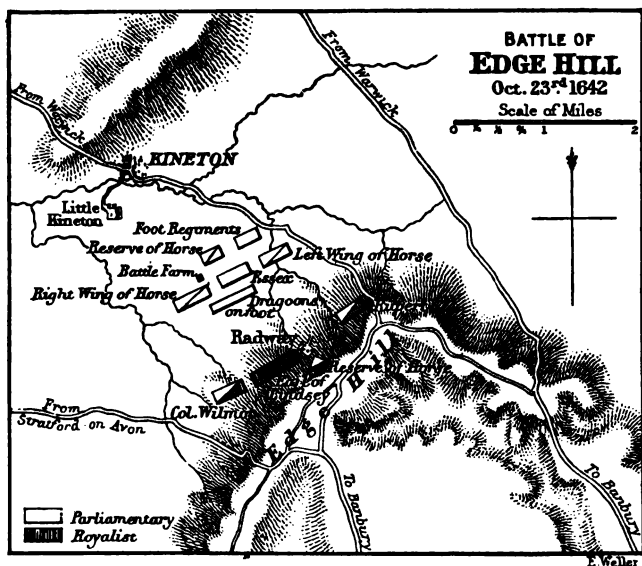
sur-rend'er: to give up.

Ul'-ster: the northern province of Ireland.

CHAPTER XXIX.

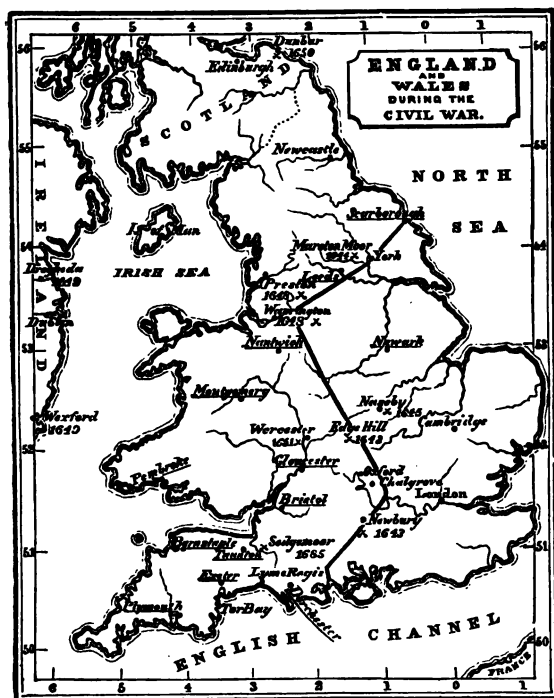
THE CIVIL WAR.

1. **The Beginning of the War.**—When the war began Charles hoped to defeat his opponents at once. There was a battle at Edgehill, but neither side won a decided



victory. The king, however, marched on, and got as near to London as Brentford. The Londoners, however, came out in crowds to join Essex's army, and the whole force drew up at Turnham Green. Charles, having a smaller army, drew back and retired to Oxford, which became his headquarters during the remainder of the war.

2. **The King Hopes to Starve out London.**—The king knew that if he could make himself master of London, he would be master of all England ; as without the help of the merchants and tradesmen of London, Parliament



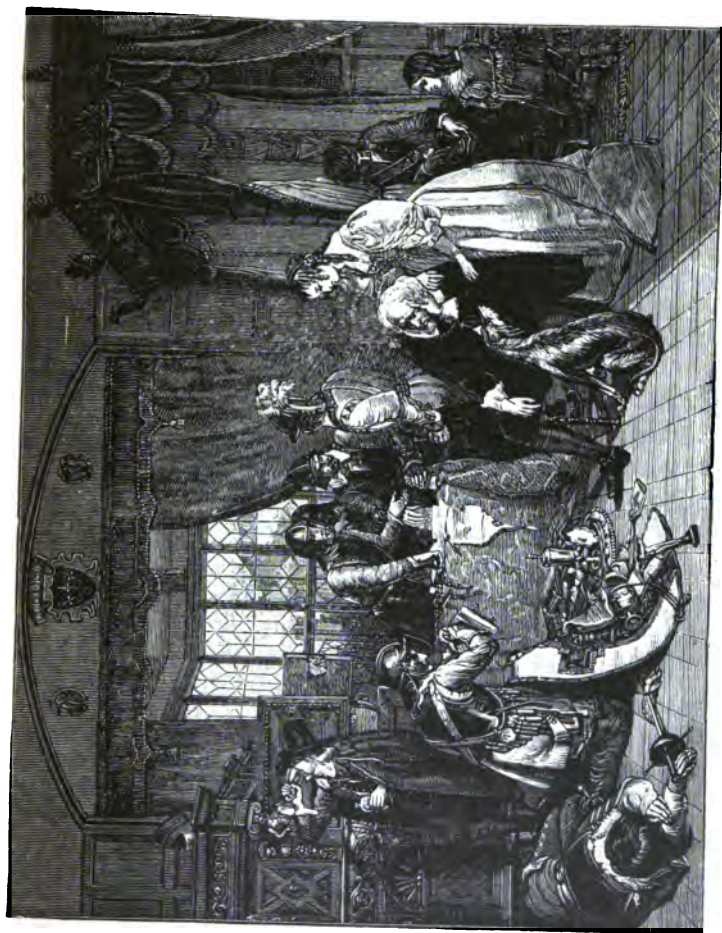
would be unable to pay its soldiers. He therefore drew up a plan for starving London out in 1643. He was to keep his own army near Oxford to be ready to fight any troops which Essex might bring against him. A second army, commanded by the Earl of Newcastle, was to

advance from Yorkshire to the northern shore of the Thames below London; whilst a third army, under Sir Ralph Hopton, was to come from Cornwall to the southern shore of the Thames. If Newcastle and Hopton could build forts on opposite sides of the river, they would be able to prevent ships coming up the Thames, and London would be starved into submission.

3. Royalist Successes in 1643.—In 1643 the king was, on the whole, successful. John Hampden was killed in a skirmish at Chalgrove Field; and Hopton's army defeated the Parliamentary army under Sir William Waller at Roundway Down, near Devizes. Almost at the same time Newcastle defeated the Parliamentary generals, Lord Fairfax and his son Sir Thomas Fairfax, in Yorkshire, and everything seemed ready for carrying out the king's plan.

4. The Siege of Gloucester.—The king was unable to carry out his intention, because each of his armies was more interested in looking after the counties from which its soldiers came than in bringing the war to a close. Newcastle's soldiers would not leave Yorkshire, because they were afraid lest the Parliamentary garrison of Hull might damage their lands and houses whilst they were away. Hopton's Cornishmen were eager to go back to Cornwall, because they were afraid of danger to their homes from the Parliamentary garrison at Plymouth. Charles was obliged to give up his great plan. He laid siege to Gloucester, hoping that when Hull and Plymouth were taken as well as Gloucester he would be able to accomplish his design.

5. The First Battle of Newbury.—In these sieges



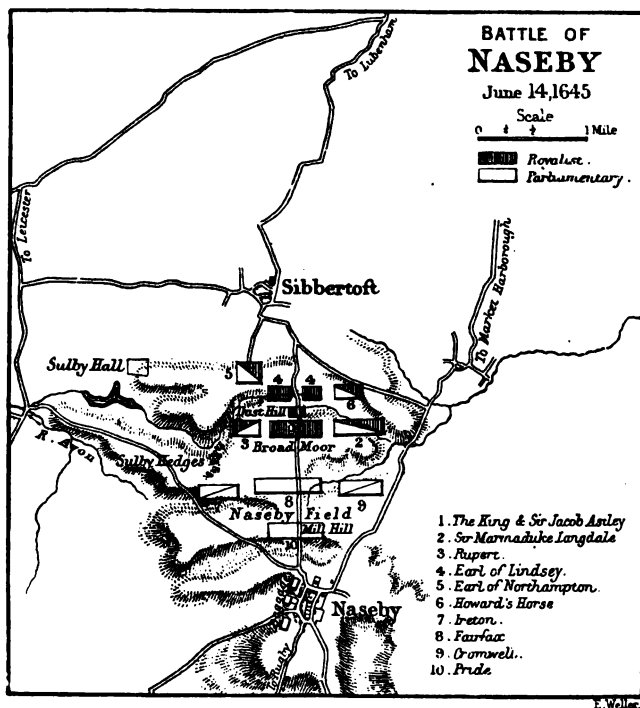
SACKING BASING HOUSE

Charles had nothing but disappointment. He did not succeed in taking any one of the three places. When it was known in London that Gloucester was in danger, the citizens took arms and flocked to reinforce Essex's army. With their help Essex marched to deliver Gloucester. Charles raised the siege, and hastened to Newbury, throwing his army across the road by which Essex meant to return to London. In the battle which ensued neither side was able to overwhelm the other, but the king's army used all its gunpowder and retreated in the night, allowing Essex to make his way home in safety.

6. The Solemn League and Covenant.—Pym knew now that he must get help if his side was to be victorious. He invited the Scots to come to the help of the English Parliament. The Solemn League and Covenant was agreed to, binding the two kingdoms to mutual assistance, and imposing upon the English Parliament the obligation of bringing the ecclesiastical institutions of England into the nearest possible conformity with those of Scotland.

7. Marston Moor and Lostwithiel.—On this, at the beginning of 1644, a Scottish army entered England. The king's generals—one of whom was Charles's nephew, Prince Rupert, a brave and dashing cavalry officer—were defeated by a combined army of Scots and English at Marston Moor, after which the whole of the north fell into the hands of the Parliamentary generals. In the south the two generals opposed to the king, the Earl of Essex and Sir William Waller, quarrelled and separated; so that the king was able to fall first on one and then on

the other. He defeated Waller at Cropredy Bridge in Oxfordshire, and he forced the greater part of the army of Essex to capitulate at Lostwithiel in Cornwall. Parliament, therefore, summoned to its aid an army under



the Earl of Manchester, which had fought at Marston Moor; but in that army also the generals were quarrelling, and though the king was defeated at a second battle of Newbury he was allowed to march away without receiving much harm.

8. The New Model Army.—Parliament discovered that if Charles was to be beaten they must get rid of their quarrelling commanders. A New Model army, as it was called, was therefore formed under Sir Thomas Fairfax, and in 1645 this army entirely beat the king at Naseby. One place after another gave itself up to the conquerors, and in 1646 Charles surrendered himself to the Scots.

Brent'-ford: a town on the River Thames, a few miles above London.

cap-it'-u-late: to give up; to surrender as prisoners of war.

Chal'-grove Field: in the South-East corner of Oxfordshire.

con-form-i-ty: likeness or agreement.

De-viz'-es: a town in the middle of Wiltshire.

ec-cle-si-as-tic-al in-sti-tu-tions: the churches and modes of conducting divine worship.

Edge'-hill: in the South-East of Warwickshire.

Turn'-ham Green: near the West of London.

gar'-ris-on: the soldiers who hold a town or fort.

Mar'-ston Moor: a few miles to the West of York.

op-pon'-ents: enemies; those opposed to or on the other side.

re'-in-force: to add to a force; to send fresh soldiers to help.

skir'-mish: a fight between only a few soldiers on either side.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE LAST YEARS OF CHARLES I.

1. Presbyterians and Independents.—The success of the New Model army had been mainly attributable to the second in command, Oliver Cromwell. Cromwell was the leader of a large number of Puritans who were known as Independents, who wished that all Puritans should be allowed to worship as they thought right, whilst the majority in Parliament, having already decided that there should be no more bishops, were anxious

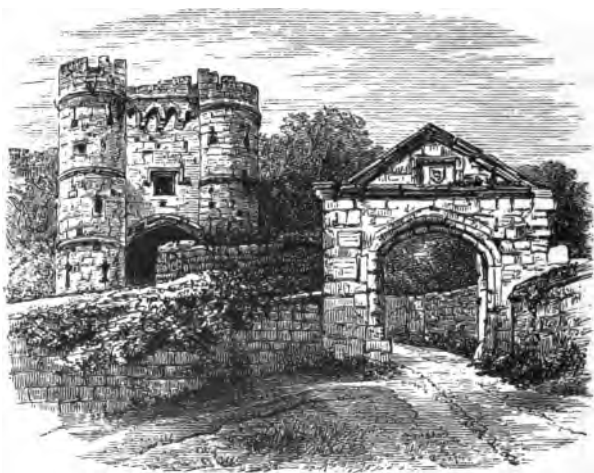
to set up a Presbyterian Church, to which everyone should be obliged to conform. The Presbyterians were the more confident of success as they had the Scots on their side, and if Charles could have been won over they would probably have had their way. Charles, however, would not agree to the overthrow of the bishops, and the Scots, having been paid for their services, returned home, leaving him in the hands of the English Parliament.

2. The Parliament and the Army.—The Parliament, having thus got possession of the king, lodged him at Holmby House, in Northamptonshire. He had not been long there when the army began to quarrel with the Parliament. The Presbyterians in Parliament wanted to send the soldiers home without paying them the arrears of their pay. The soldiers said that they would not go home till they had been paid; and they also said that they had fought for their religion, and that they would remain in arms till they were allowed to worship as they thought right. They marched to London, and turned some of the leading Presbyterians out of Parliament. The army had thus made itself master of England.

3. The Army and the King.—Before this happened some soldiers, under the command of Cornet Joyce, appeared at Holmby House. Joyce told the king he must accompany him, and Charles went with him in a very good humour. He thought that as the army was quarrelling with the Parliament, one or the other would help him back to power. The soldiers, however, would only help him on their own terms. They offered not only to restore Charles to his dignity, but to allow the

bishops to continue in their places if he would consent to grant complete freedom to all Protestants to worship according to their consciences. Charles refused to consent, and made his escape from the army to the Isle of Wight.

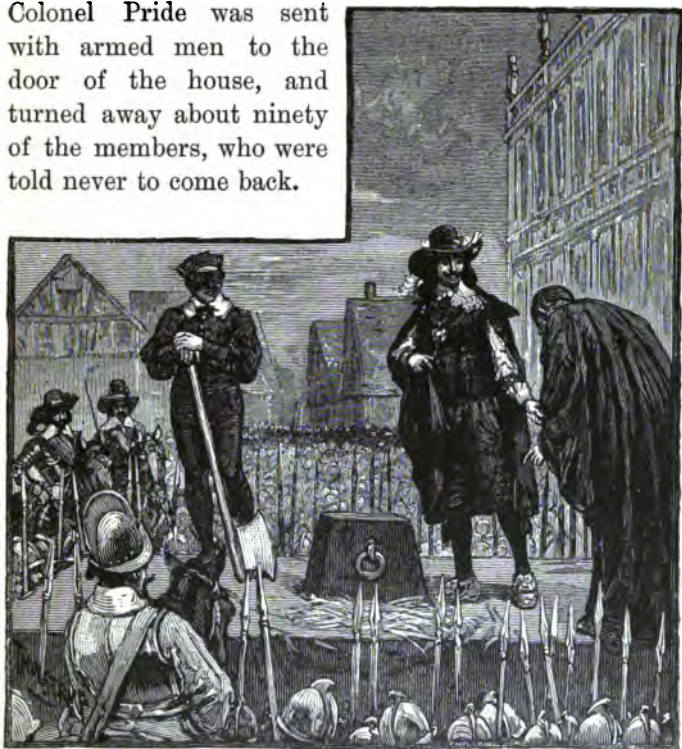
4. The Second Civil War.—Charles had not obtained liberty. He was shut up in Carisbrook Castle, and once



CARISBROOK CASTLE.

more he was asked to negotiate with the Parliament. Whilst he was treating he brought about a rising in his favour. There were insurrections against the Parliament; and the army in various parts of England and even the Scots, who hated the Independents, came to Charles's aid. In the second civil war, as it was called, Fairfax and Cromwell gained a complete victory over their enemies, and the conquerors on their return made

up their minds to punish Charles for stirring up their enemies against them at a time when he was carrying on a friendly negotiation with them. As the House of Commons would not consent to put the king to death Colonel Pride was sent with armed men to the door of the house, and turned away about ninety of the members, who were told never to come back.



EXECUTION OF CHARLES I.

5. The Execution of the King.—After Pride's Purge, as it was called, those who remained in Parliament were quite ready to do all that the soldiers wished. They

put an end to the House of Lords, and appointed a High Court of Justice to try the king. When Charles was brought before this Court he was accused of treason, as having levied war against the Parliament and the nation. Whether he had been right or wrong, there was no law in existence which called this treason, and Charles refused to acknowledge that the Court had any right to try him. As he would not speak in his own defence the Court sentenced him to death, and in 1649 he was executed on a scaffold before his own palace at Whitehall. Thousands of his subjects, who had disapproved of his conduct in past years, were won over to admire the calmness and dignity which he displayed in his last hours. It was a political opponent who wrote that—

He nothing common did, or mean,
 Upon that memorable scene,
 But with his keener eye
 The axe's edge did try;
 Nor called the gods, with vulgar spite,
 To vindicate his helpless right;
 But bowed his comely head
 Down, as upon a bed.

at-trib'-ut-able: due to; owing to.
ar-rears': money owing for some time, that should have been paid.
Car'-is-brook Castle: a castle in the Isle of Wight.
con-form': to fall in with; to agree to.

dis-ap-prov'-ed: disliked
lev'-ied: carried on.
ma-jor'-i-ty: the greater number.
ne-go'-ti-ate: to meet together to try to come to an agreement or make terms of peace.
White'-hall: in London; not far from Westminster Bridge.

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE COMMONWEALTH AND PROTECTORATE.

1. *The Commonwealth.*—The members of the House of Commons—only about eighty in number—who still remained at Westminster, continued to govern the country. They called the government a commonwealth, because there was no king, but they were in no hurry to allow fresh elections to be held, because they knew that they were exceedingly unpopular, and that it was improbable that many of them would be chosen again. Especially since the king's death the mass of the nation disliked the Puritans, and only submitted because the Puritans had the army at their side.

2. *Cromwell in Ireland and Scotland.*—For some time the army had work enough. During the whole course of the civil war the greater part of Ireland had been in the hands of the natives, and Cromwell was now sent to reconquer it. There was a brutal slaughter by his orders of the defenders of Drogheda, and another brutal slaughter without his orders of the defenders of Wexford. Thousands of Irish were driven from their homes to live as well as they might in the desolate regions of Connaught. Cromwell returned to carry on war in Scotland, where the Scots had invited the son of the late king, who styled himself Charles II. Cromwell defeated the Scots at Dunbar, and when, in the next year, their army, slipping past him, marched into England, he defeated them again at Worcester. The young king escaped to France. On one occasion he was hid amongst

the branches of an oak whilst Cromwell's troopers rode under it in search of him. It shows how general was the feeling in his favour, that no single person with whom he took shelter during his progress through England attempted to betray him.

3. Expulsion of the Long Parliament.—In 1653 Cromwell turned the Long Parliament out of doors, and



CROMWELL EXPELLING THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

called an assembly known by the nickname of the Barebones Parliament, from the name of one of its members. The Barebones Parliament could not agree upon anything, and ended by asking Cromwell to govern England himself.

4. The Protectorate.—Cromwell assumed the title of Lord Protector. His government was successful abroad,

and at home he did his best to secure religious liberty by allowing all sects to worship in their own way. From this liberty those who desired to use the Prayer-book of the Church of England were excluded, as Cromwell knew that the clergy of the Church of England and those who took their part were in favour of the king. Cromwell twice called Parliaments to support him; but the Parliaments wanted to be masters, whilst he wanted to be master himself. He tried to do his best for the country; but the country was tired of Puritanism, and did not wish to be governed by a soldier. In 1658 he died.

5. Richard Cromwell and the Restoration.—Oliver was succeeded by his son Richard, but the soldiers soon quarrelled with him and turned him out. The remains of the Long Parliament, consisting of about forty members, were brought back to Westminster, and by-and-by the soldiers turned them out too. Finding that people would not pay taxes unless there was some sort of Parliament, the soldiers brought them back again. At last Monk, who commanded the English army in Scotland, marched to London, and as the soldiers were quarrelling amongst themselves, was able to do much as he pleased. He declared for a free Parliament. The old Long Parliament voted its own dissolution. A new Parliament was elected in 1660, and its first act was to ask Charles II. to return to rule in his father's place.

Con'-naught: the North-Western province of Ireland.

Drog'-he-da: a town in the East of Ireland, on the River Boyne.

Dun-bar': a town on the South-East coast of Scotland.

ex-clud'-ed: kept out. Lat. *ex* =

out, *claudo* = to shut.

sub-mit'-ted: gave in.

West-min'-ster: the part of London in which are the Houses of Parliament.

Wex'-ford: a port in the extreme South-East corner of Ireland.

CHAPTER XXXII.

CLARENDON'S MINISTRY.

1. **The Restoration of the Church of England.**—On one thing the greater part of the nation was agreed. The Church of England must be restored, and Puritanism suppressed. The bishops regained their authority, and the Puritan clergy were persecuted. Any persons meeting privately for religious worship were punished, and their ministers were not allowed to come within five miles of a borough town, because the greater number of Puritans were to be found in towns. Many of those who turned against the Puritans were really desirous to have the old Church of England Prayer-book used once more, but there were many who merely disliked Puritanism because they were themselves vicious, and because the Puritans had tried to put an end to vice by punishing it.

2. **The Army Disbanded.**—‘It is my fault,’ said Charles II. when he landed at Dover, ‘that I have not come back sooner; for I find nobody who does not tell me he has always wished for my return.’ In reality it was the fault of the Puritan army. Charles had no difficulty in dismissing that army, because his subjects disliked it as much as he did. Three of Monk’s regiments were kept, which formed the beginning of the modern army. Some men who had taken part in the execution of Charles I. were executed, and even the bodies of Cromwell and of two of his chief supporters were dug up and hanged though they had been dead for some time.

3. Parliamentary Government.—Though Englishmen no longer wished to be governed by Puritans or soldiers, they did not wish to see the revival of the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission, or to allow the king to govern without a Parliament. The chief minister of the king was Hyde, who was now made Earl of Clarendon. From this time no English king ever attempted to rule for any length of time without a Parliament. For a few years the king and Parliament worked well together. Soon, however, a difference arose between them. Charles and his courtiers lived a riotous and extravagant life, and he was always spending more money than the House of Commons thought he ought to spend, so that it was not long before the members complained of his conduct.

4. The Dutch War.—The ill-feeling between king and Parliament grew worse instead of better. The Dutch were an active commercial people, with ships on every sea. England also was commercial, and the two nations regarded each other with feelings as unfriendly as those of owners of two shops which sell the same articles next door to each other. In 1664 war broke out between them. There was plenty of hard fighting in that war, and no very great success on either side. Parliament voted money for the fleet, but, before long, even the Royalists in the House of Commons began to suspect that the king spent some even of this money on his own pleasures. Men began to grumble, saying to one another that if Cromwell had been alive, things would have been otherwise. At last the Dutch sailed up the Medway, burnt three men-of-war, carried off a fourth, and blockaded the Thames, so that no coals could be had in London. Charles

was forced to make peace with the Dutch on their own terms, and a few weeks later Clarendon, who was blamed for everything that went wrong, was driven from power.

block-ad'-ed: prevented all ships entering or leaving the port by placing men-of-war at the mouth of the river.

com-mer'-ci-al: trading.

Med'-way: a tributary stream flowing into the estuary of the

Thames.

ri'-ot-ous: causing an uproar; noisy; extravagant.

sup-press'-ed: put down; kept back.

vi'-cious: corrupt in principles or conduct.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CHARLES II. AND LOUIS XIV.

1. **The Cabal Ministry.**—Clarendon had tried to put down both the Dissenters, as the Puritans were now called, and the Roman Catholics. The king, however, was secretly a Roman Catholic himself, and would have been glad to give toleration to both Dissenters and Roman Catholics. The new ministers favoured this policy. They were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale, and as the first letters of their names spelled the word 'Cabal,' the term at that time was applied to any body of men privately consulted by the king. They were in favour of toleration, but it was not on them alone that Charles relied. The King of France, Louis XIV., was more powerful than any king had been in Europe since the days of Philip II. of Spain. Louis wanted Charles to help him against the Dutch, and between Charles and Louis was drawn up a secret agreement, the Treaty of Dover in which Charles promised to help Louis in his

war, if Louis would give him money and otherwise assist him if he offended his subjects by openly declaring himself to be a Roman Catholic.

2. The Declaration of Indulgence and the Test Act.—Charles accordingly declared war against the Dutch, but he did not venture to acknowledge himself to be a Roman Catholic. He used to say that whatever else might happen he did not mean to go on his travels again, and he thought that if his subjects found out what religion he was of, they might send him abroad again, with very little money in his pocket. He therefore contented himself with issuing a Declaration of Indulgence, allowing both Dissenters and Roman Catholics to worship freely, though the law forbade them to do so. As soon as Parliament met it expressed its dislike of the king's proceedings, and Charles was obliged to withdraw the Declaration. The ablest of his ministers, Ashley, who had recently been made Earl of Shaftesbury, found out the secret of the Treaty of Dover, and was turned out of office. Parliament then passed the Test Act by which every post under the Crown was to be closed against Roman Catholics and Dissenters by requiring them, on accepting office, to receive the Communion in the Church of England and to renounce one of the principal doctrines of the Roman Church. Amongst those who were turned out of office, was the king's brother, James, Duke of York, the heir to the throne, as he had recently become a Roman Catholic. Clifford and Arlington, two of the Cabal, were also Roman Catholics, and were turned out, the whole of the Cabal ministry being broken up by their expulsion.

3. Danby's Ministry.—Charles's next minister was

the Earl of Danby, who agreed with the House of Commons in wishing to suppress Roman Catholics and Dissenters, and in hostility against the King of France. He brought the Dutch war to an end, and arranged a marriage between the Princess Mary, the eldest daughter of the Duke of York, and William Prince of Orange, who was Stadtholder, or Chief Magistrate, of the Dutch Republic. As Mary was herself a Protestant, and as her husband was not only a Protestant but the leader of all the kings and princes who were hostile to France upon the Continent, there was every probability that if, when Charles died, his Roman Catholic brother was still alive to succeed him, the new king would leave the crown in the next generation to a decidedly Protestant successor.

ex-pul'-sion: a turning out from an office or place.

Dis-sent'-er: one who dissents or does not agree with all the doctrines of the Established Church.

hos-ti'-li-ty: enmity; to be adverse or opposite to.

re-nounce': to give up.

suc-cess'-or: one who follows another in any position, as one king follows another.

tol-er-a'-tion: liberty given to a few to do what they think is right though the many may disapprove.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE LAST YEARS OF CHARLES II.

1. **The Popish Plot.**—Shaftesbury had no sooner been turned out of office than he threw himself into violent opposition. He wanted to secure toleration for the Dissenters, but to refuse it to the Roman Catholics. As he was utterly unscrupulous in the means which he adopted for assailing the king who had dismissed him, he did not

object to avail himself of the services of Titus Oates. Oates was a most unblushing liar. He bore false witness in court against several Roman Catholics, accusing them of a plot—known as the Popish plot—to murder the king, a plot of which they were totally innocent. His lies were firmly believed and, as judges and juries shared in the popular excitement, a large number of persons were condemned and executed for a crime which no one even wanted to commit. Shaftesbury did everything in his power to strengthen the delusion, hoping thereby to overthrow Danby and to secure the triumph of his own opinions.

2. The End of Danby's Ministry.—At last Danby was overthrown. The House of Commons discovered that Danby had written a letter to ask Louis to send money to Charles to enable him to defy his Parliament. Though Danby had signed the letter much against his will, and only by the express orders of Charles, the Commons not unnaturally thought that he had been a willing agent. The minister who was the enemy of France was thus dismissed as the friend of France, but, in order to save Danby from punishment, Charles dissolved Parliament and called another.

3. The Exclusion Bill.—Three Parliaments, known as the three Short Parliaments, followed in rapid succession. In all three, the House of Commons, urged on by Shaftesbury, were anxious that the king should give his consent to an 'Exclusion Bill,' excluding all Roman Catholics from the throne. They knew that the Duke of York was the heir, and they were afraid lest, if he became king, he might use his power to injure the

Protestants. Charles, however, dissolved one Parliament after another, rather than deprive his brother of his inheritance.

4. Whigs and Tories.—The two parties which had contended about the Exclusion Bill were from this time known as *Whigs* and *Tories*. Both these names were given as nicknames. Whig is a shortened form of 'whiggamore,' applied to certain Scotchmen who used the word 'whiggam' to urge on their horses. When the friends of the Duke of York called Shaftesbury's followers Whigs, they meant that they were no better than certain Scottish rebels, who had lately risen in insurrection. The word Tory came from Ireland. Irish robbers were called Tories, meaning that they were enemies of the Protestants, like Irish robbers. After a while, these names were accepted by the parties to which they had at first been applied in contempt; and men boasted of being Whigs and Tories without thinking of the original meanings of the words.

5. End of the Reign of Charles II.—For some time after the dissolution of the last of the Short Parliaments, the Tories were able to do much as they pleased. The Whigs had been talking wildly of forcing the king to do as they wished him to do, and had even ridden armed to the last Parliament. The nation did not like having a Roman Catholic king, but it was still more afraid of a fresh civil war, and it therefore took the side of the Tories. Shaftesbury was obliged to fly to Holland, and his friends, Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney, were put to death on the scaffold. Charles was able to rule without a Parliament because Louis, being afraid lest a

Parliament might call out for a war with France, sent him money from time to time. At last, in 1685, Charles was taken ill and died.

as-sail'-ing: making attacks upon.

con-tempt': scorn.

de-lu'-sion: under a wrong impression; mistaken.

in-her'-it-ance: that which is inherited from an ancestor by

right of birth.

op-po-si'-tion: state of being placed opposite or contrary to.

un-scru'-pul-ous: acting without scruples or contrary to the dictates of conscience.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE REIGN OF JAMES II.

1. Monmouth's Rebellion.—The Roman Catholic James II. was now King of England. An illegitimate son of Charles II., the Duke of Monmouth, who had no right whatever to the crown, landed at Lyme, thinking that Englishmen would rally round him because he was a Protestant. Some of the peasants and shopkeepers took arms in his favour, but the clergy and gentry were on the king's side, and Monmouth was defeated at Sedgmoor and executed in London as a traitor. Jeffreys, the Chief Justice, was sent to the West to hold what has since been known as the Bloody Assize, in which hundreds of persons were put to death for the part which they had taken in Monmouth's favour.

2. The Declaration of Indulgence.—James had appointed officers in his army who were Roman Catholics and who had, therefore, refused to take the test of receiving the Communion in the English Church. The Parliament at once protested against this breach of the law,

because they were afraid lest James might fill all the offices in the army with Roman Catholics, and might thus be enabled to do as he pleased with his Protestant subjects, as Cromwell and his Puritan army had been able to do. James dissolved Parliament, and shortly afterwards issued a Declaration of Indulgence, announcing that all his subjects, Dissenters as well as



JAMES II.

Roman Catholics, were free to worship as they liked, and to hold office without taking any kind of test. Most of the Dissenters were as much afraid of the Roman Catholics as the members of the Church of England were, and cried out against the Declaration, especially as the leaders of the

Church of England promised to obtain an Act of Parliament, granting toleration to Dissenters, if only they would join in resisting the king.

3. The Expulsion of the Fellows of Magdalen.—In those days there were no colleges in which the sons of Roman Catholics could be educated in their own religion; and James, to put an end to this state of things, contrived that two of the Oxford colleges should be governed by Roman Catholics. Not being satisfied with this,

when the President of Magdalen died, James sent orders to the Fellows, who had the right of choosing a new President, to choose a Roman Catholic. The Fellows met and chose a Protestant, telling the king that they had acted according to law, and that they would not obey anyone but the man whom they had lawfully chosen. James turned them out of the college, leaving them to beg their bread. They were invited to live in the houses of country gentlemen, who were glad to show how much they respected the Fellows of Magdalen for refusing to disobey the law to please the king.

4. The Trial of the Seven Bishops.—After this James ordered that his Declaration of Indulgence should be read in all the churches. Seven of the bishops drew up a petition to the king, asking him to excuse the clergy from doing what was against their consciences. James flew in a passion and ordered them to be tried. They were all acquitted. Crowds in Westminster Hall and in the streets around shouted for joy. Even James's own soldiers shouted as loudly as others. James, who heard the noise, asked what it all meant. 'Nothing,' he was told; 'the soldiers are glad that the bishops are acquitted.' 'Do you call that nothing?' he answered; 'so much the worse for them.'

5. The Coming of the Prince of Orange.—Up to this time Englishmen, though they were dissatisfied with James, had taken no steps to get rid of him, because they knew that as soon as he died, he would be succeeded by his Protestant daughter, Mary. A son was now born to James, and there could be no doubt that the child would not only be brought up in his father's

religion, but would be taught that kings of England were not bound to abstain from breaking the law. Some principal noblemen therefore now invited Mary's husband, William, Prince of Orange, to come to England, to see that the law was obeyed. The Prince landed at Brixham, in Torbay, with a small army, on November 5, 1688, and James, finding that his subjects would not fight for him, fled to France, where Louis received him kindly.

ab-stain': to keep away from.

ac-quit'-ted: declared innocent, and therefore set free.

Lyme: a small town on the coast

of Dorsetshire.

Mag'-dal-en: (pronounced Maud'-len) Magdalen College in Oxford.

Sedg'-moor: in Somersetshire.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

WILLIAM AND MARY.

1. The New Sovereigns and Parliament.—After the flight of James, Parliament declared that he was no longer king, and offered the crown to William and Mary, though it was arranged that William should govern as long as he lived. From that time no king or queen could claim to rule because they were born to reign. A king who was on the throne because Parliament had placed him there was not likely to try to rule, as James had tried, in defiance of the Parliament and the nation, lest Parliament might treat him as it had treated James.

2. The New Sovereigns and the Army.—There was, however, one way in which a king might defy the parliament and the nation. If he had an army disposed to

follow him as Cromwell had, he might turn out the Parliament and break the law. At the time of the Revolution it was more than ever necessary that the king should have a large army. The Scotch Highlanders soon rose for James, under Viscount Dundee; and James himself crossed to Ireland, where the native Irish rose in his name against English government. On the Continent Louis XIV., who was again at war with almost every European power, took James's side, and war thereupon broke out between France and England. Yet though a large army had thus become necessary, Parliament tried its best to keep it in order. They gave to the king power to punish disobedience in the army by a Mutiny Bill, and this Bill they passed only for a short time, so that, if it was not renewed, the officers would cease to have power to flog a deserter or to shoot a mutineer. Yet, after all, the main security against the interference of the army in political matters is that the army should not want to interfere, and as the officers were the brothers and cousins of peers and members of the House of Commons, they had no wish to make an attack upon Parliament, which was made up of their own friends.

3. The Toleration Act and the Liberty of the Press.—For many years the nation had been divided on matters of religion. Each party in turn had attempted to silence the other, and the consequence was that the defeated party was always trying to obtain power, in order that it might silence its adversaries as well as gain free speech for itself. The Toleration Act passed soon after the Revolution allowed the Dissenters freedom to preach and pray in their own chapels, and though there was plenty of

quarrelling afterwards, the quarrelling was not so bitter as it had been before. Up to this time the Government had kept the right, not only of stopping men from preaching, but also of stopping them from printing what they wished. A few years after the Toleration Act this claim was abandoned, and anyone who objected to the proceedings of the Government could say so in print. In this way people who were not ministers of State or members of Parliament, came to take an interest in the management of their affairs by the Government, and those who had anything to propose, could do so, even if the king or his ministers objected to it. No doubt a great deal of nonsense was printed, but there were grains of wheat amongst the chaff.

4. William's Wars.—A nation united by the removal of the chief causes of discontent is sure to be strong. Though the Highlanders defeated William's troops at Killiecrankie, Dundee was killed in the battle, and the Highlands were soon afterwards brought to submission. In Ireland William defeated James at the Battle of the Boyne. James went back to France, and after a prolonged struggle Ireland was again conquered. Its government was placed in the hands of the Protestants, who alone were allowed to sit in the Parliament at Dublin; and the Catholic Irish, who formed the bulk of the population, were subjected to harsh and cruel laws by their Protestant rulers. William's struggle with France was more severe, and at one time it seemed as if the English people would grow tired of supporting him. James, however, tried to come back by the aid of a French fleet, and, whatever else Englishmen would bear, they

would not patiently endure a French invasion. The fleet, which was to bring over the French army to restore James, was utterly destroyed by Admiral Russell in the Bay of La Hogue.

5. Death of Mary.—Small-pox was a terrible disease in the days when vaccination was unknown. There was scarcely a family in which at least one member had not been carried off by it, and those who survived usually bore the marks of the plague upon their faces. In 1694 the queen, the sweet and gentle Mary, fell a victim to it. William was plunged into the deepest grief. The nation remembered her as having devoted the palace at Greenwich, which Charles II. had raised for his own enjoyment, to be a place of refuge for wounded and invalided sailors.

ad'-ver-sa-ries: enemies; foes.

de-fi'-ance: opposition to.

de-sert'-er: one who runs away from the army or navy.

in'-va-lid-ed: rendered unfit for further service.

Kill-ie-cran'-kie: a pass in Scotland leading from the Highlands to the Lowlands.

La Hogue: a cape in the North of

France.

mu'-tin-er: one who resists authority in the army or navy.

pre'-de-cess-or: one who has preceded or gone before another in any office.

vac'-cin-ate: to put into the human system matter taken from the cow as a preventive against small-pox.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

WILLIAM III.

1. The Whig Junto and the National Debt.—When William first undertook the government he had chosen his ministers from both parties at the same time. The

consequence was that the ministers spent more time in quarrelling with one another than they did in looking after the affairs of the nation. At last William adopted the plan of filling all the offices with Whigs, who were more eager to carry on the war than the Tories were, and more cheerful in supporting the king. The new Cabinet, as the ministers were called when they met together to consult on the affairs of the nation, was very successful. As they were of one mind they were trusted by the nation, and those who would not have lent money to a divided government were ready to lend to them. The National Debt that is to say, the debt of the nation to those who have lent it money—began with them. In this way they were able to equip armies and to keep them in the field when Louis was at his wits' end for the means to support his troops. In 1695 William was able to take Namur, the first fortress which Louis had ever lost, and in 1697 Louis gave up the struggle and signed the Peace of Ryswick, in which he acknowledged William's title to the English throne.

2. The Dismissal of the Dutch Guards.—Though the war was over William was anxious to keep a large part of the army together, as he knew that Louis would like to fight again if he thought that England was weak. The Commons were anxious to save money, and they remembered too well how Cromwell had ruled England with the help of his soldiers, to like to see a larger army than was absolutely necessary. They therefore insisted not only on diminishing the army as much as possible, but on sending back to the Netherlands the Dutch Guards which William had brought over with him. William was

bitterly displeased, and talked of abdicating, but he gave way, and allowed the Commons to carry out their intentions.

3. The Spanish Succession and the Partition Treaties.—

William had been the more anxious to retain a large army, as he knew that Louis claimed, in right of his wife, the whole Spanish monarchy, after the death of the actual sovereign, Charles II., who was not likely to live long. Other princes claimed the inheritance, especially the Archduke Charles, whose father, the emperor, ruled in Austria and the neighbouring countries. William tried to induce the claimants to divide the inheritance amongst them by two successive partition treaties, as he was afraid that if Spain and all its possessions fell into the hands of a son or grandson of Louis, France would be stronger than all the other European nations combined. When, in 1700, the King of Spain died, Louis, who had agreed to the Partition Treaties, broke his promises, and sent his grandson to be King of Spain under the name of Philip V.

4. The Act of Settlement.—In England there was no eagerness to go to war again so soon. People were thinking more about securing themselves against James by law. In 1701 the Act of Settlement was passed, which directed that if William died without children, the crown should go to Anne, the younger daughter of James, and then to the Electress Sophia of Hanover and her heirs. The electress was the daughter of Elizabeth, the electress palatine, and through her the granddaughter of James I. No one but a Protestant was ever to be king or queen of England.

5. Rise of a War Feeling.—At this time the Tories had a majority in the House of Commons, and were most anxious to keep the peace with France. Louis did a great deal to provoke England, and even sent French soldiers to occupy fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands, just as if he were master of his grandson's dominions. Englishmen, however, seemed to have made up their mind to bear with patience anything that the French might do. At last news arrived which changed their temper. James II. died in France. Louis at once acknowledged his son as James III. of England. At once all England was stirred to anger at the insolence of the King of France in giving the title of an English king to one who had been rejected by the English Parliament and nation. William found no difficulty now in providing for war. He summoned a new Parliament, which voted money and soldiers with great alacrity.

6. Death of William.—In the war which was approaching William was to have no part. His horse stumbled over a molehill in the park of Hampton Court. He broke his collar-bone, and, after lingering a few days, he died. The Jacobites, as the friends of James were called, made merry over the death of James's greatest enemy, and drank the health of the little gentleman in black, that is to say, of the mole who had raised the hillock which had caused the disaster. The English nation had to thank William for much. He had ruled according to law; and he had succeeded in guiding his Parliaments because he had known how to keep his temper, and had never insisted on having his own way, even when the nation

was determined to do things which he thought to be wrong.

ab'-di-cat-ing: leaving the throne.

a-lac'-ri-ty: cheerful readiness to obey orders.

dim-in'-ish-ing: growing less or smaller.

e-quip': to fit out; to furnish everything needed for service.

in-duce': persuade.

in'-so-lerce: contempt; rudeness.

Na'-mur: a town in Belgium, on the

River Meuse.

Neth'-er-lands: commonly called Holland.

par-ti'-tion treat'-ies: agreements for making a division.

pro-voke': to put out of temper.

re-ject'-ed: refused; thrust away.

Rys'-wick: a place in Holland, near the political capital, the Hague.

sov'-er-eign: king; ruler.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

ANNE.

1. **The Occasional Conformity Bill.**—Anne was popular in England, partly because she was not a foreigner, as William had been, and partly because it was known that she did not like the Dissenters. Most people had, by this time, become accustomed to see the Dissenters worshipping in chapels of their own, but they were afraid that if they were allowed to hold offices they would be as powerful as they had become in Cromwell's time. It had been supposed that the Test Act would keep them out of power, because no one was allowed to hold an office who did not first receive the Communion in a church. Some of the Dissenters, however, had lately evaded the law by coming to church to receive the Communion and then going back to their chapels. This was called 'Occasional Conformity.' The Tories, who disliked the Dissenters, proposed a bill against Occasional Conformity, to punish

any Dissenter who went to chapel during his term of office. The House of Commons, where the greater number of the members were Tories, adopted this bill, but the House of Lords, in which there was a Whig majority, threw it out several times.

2. The War with France.—During the greater part of the reign, England, together with most of the other nations of the Continent, was engaged in the war with France for



GIBRALTAR.

which William had been preparing. The Duke of Marlborough was a great general and defeated the French armies in four battles, driving them out of Germany and the Netherlands. In Spain an English fleet seized Gibraltar, but it was found impossible to conquer Spain, as the Spaniards stood up for Philip V.

3. The Union with Scotland.—Though Scotland had had the same king as England since the time of James I.

it was still a distinct nation with its own Parliament and its own laws. The English did not allow Scotch goods to come into England without paying duty, just as if they had been French or German goods, nor did they allow Scotchmen to trade with English colonies. For some time Scotchmen had been anxious to obtain these privileges, and they now declared that unless they were allowed to have them they would not have the same king to govern them as the one who was to succeed in England after Anne's death. This frightened the English, who did not want again to have a separate and perhaps hostile kingdom on the other side of the Tweed, and in 1707 both nations agreed to the Act of Union. England and Scotland were to become one people with one Parliament and with freedom of trade between the countries, though Scotland was to keep its own laws and its own Presbyterian Church.

4. The Sacheverell Trial.—In 1709, the Whigs were in power and were strongly in favour of a continuance of the war. The nation, however, was tired of the war, and thought that Louis had been beaten enough to make him keep quiet for the future. At the end of the year a certain Dr. Sacheverell preached against the Dissenters, and the Whigs who favoured them. He declared that all resistance to a king was unchristian. The Whig ministers, thinking him to have attacked the resistance which had driven James II. from the throne, accused Sacheverell before the House of Lords. The preacher became popular with the London mob. Crowds ran about the streets, pulled down the chapels of the Dissenters and shouted for the Church and Dr. Sache-

verell. The House of Lords, though the Whigs had a majority in it, was so alarmed that it contented itself with burning Sacheverell's sermons and forbidding him to preach for the next three years. The condemned clergyman, in consequence, found himself popular over the whole country. Wherever he went the church bells were rung and bonfires lighted in his honour. The queen, emboldened by this manifestation of feeling, dismissed the Whig ministers and dissolved Parliament. The new Tory ministers, of whom Harley and St. John were the chief, found themselves, after the elections, at the head of a large majority in the House of Commons.

5. The Peace of Utrecht.—The first thing done by the Tories was to make peace at Utrecht with France. Philip V. kept Spain, but the other European possessions of Spain were given to Austria.

6. The Last Days of Queen Anne.—The Tories used their power to do their worst against the Dissenters. Not only did the House of Lords pass the Occasional Conformity Act, but a still worse Act, the Schism Act—which prevented the Dissenters from having schoolmasters of their own religion for their children—became law. In 1714, however, the Electress Sophia died, and her son George was now heir to the English crown, according to the Act of Settlement. As it was known that he was friendly to the Whigs, some of the Tories would have been glad to change the law, and to make the son of James II., who was usually called the Pretender, king after Anne's death. Anne, however, died before anything was done, and George I. quietly ascended the throne.

ac-cus'-tom-ed : used to ; in the habit of.

e-va'-ded : avoided ; escaped from.

host'-ile : adverse ; opposed to.

man-i-fes-ta'-tion : display.

Pres-by-te'-ri-an : the Presbyterian Church is one in which the

clergy are all equal, there being no bishops over them.

Tweed : the river which for a part of its course separates England from Scotland.

Utrecht : a town in the Netherlands.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

GEORGE I.

1714.

1. The First Years of George I.—The new king dismissed Anne's Tory ministers and put Whigs in their place. In 1715 the Jacobites rose against the government in the North of England and in Scotland. The Pretender, who called himself James III., landed in Scotland, but he was a sluggish, inactive man, and was, therefore, despised even by his own supporters. The insurrection was put down, and the Whig government had everything its own way. It persuaded Parliament to repeal the Occasional Conformity Act and the Schism Act, which had been passed in Anne's reign in order to injure the Dissenters, and some of the Whigs even talked of putting an end to the Test Act as far as the Dissenters were concerned, and of allowing them to hold offices. Those who proposed this soon found themselves unpopular. A great many people thought that if Dissenters had power they would behave as the Puritans had behaved in the time of Cromwell. Just at this time, however, those Whigs who were in office were driven out

in consequence of an affair which had nothing to do with politics.

2. The South Sea Bubble.—After the Peace of Utrecht trade prospered, and many people who had no experience of buying and selling thought that, if only they put their money together in order to trade with it, they would soon become rich. Amongst the companies formed at this time was the South Sea Company, intended to carry on trade with South America. People who knew that there was a great quantity of gold and silver in South America fancied that by joining this company they would soon become fabulously rich. Foolish persons were so eager to get these profits into their hands that some of them were ready to give 1,000*l.* for a share in the company that had at first been worth only 100*l.* Before long they found that they had been deluded, and that they had paid much more for the share than its real value. They became angry, and angry people always want to punish somebody instead of finding fault with themselves. They discovered that some of the ministers had been bribed by the managers of the Company to give them help in Parliament, and they raised a great outcry against these ministers. One of the ministers was put in prison, and another committed suicide from shame and grief.

3. Sir Robert Walpole.—Sir Robert Walpole, who was a Whig like his predecessors, became chief minister. He was the first man in England who was called Prime Minister. In the time of William III. and Anne, the king and queen used to preside over the meetings of the Cabinet. George I., however, could not talk English,

whilst the ministers could not talk German. He, therefore, stayed away; and not one of the kings since has ever been present at a meeting of the Cabinet. When the king ceased to come, the chief minister took his place, and has become known as the Prime Minister.

4. Parliamentary Corruption.—Walpole was a very good man of business, and he knew how to manage the House of Commons. A large number of members refused to vote for him unless he bribed them, and he spent a great deal of money in bribing them. At that time, no one, unless he was a member of the House, knew how a member spoke or voted. Newspapers were not allowed to publish any information about speeches made or votes given in Parliament. A member could therefore sell his vote, because no one would know how he had given it. Most of the electors would not have cared much about the matter if they had known. When election time came they knew that the candidates gave them money and beer for their votes, and very few of them thought of any other reason for voting for one man rather than another except that he gave more money and more beer than his opponent.

bri'-bed: to bribe is to give money
or anything else to a man to
make him act in a particular
way, even against his conscience.
de-lu'-ded: deceived; led away.
fab'-u-lous-ly: falsely; as told in

a fable; marvellously.
in-sur-rec'-tion: a rising or rebel-
lion against authority.
op-po'-nent: one who opposes or
does not agree with.
su'-i-cide: self-murder.

CHAPTER XL.

**THE REIGN OF GEORGE II. TO THE DEATH OF
HENRY PELHAM.**

1727-1754.

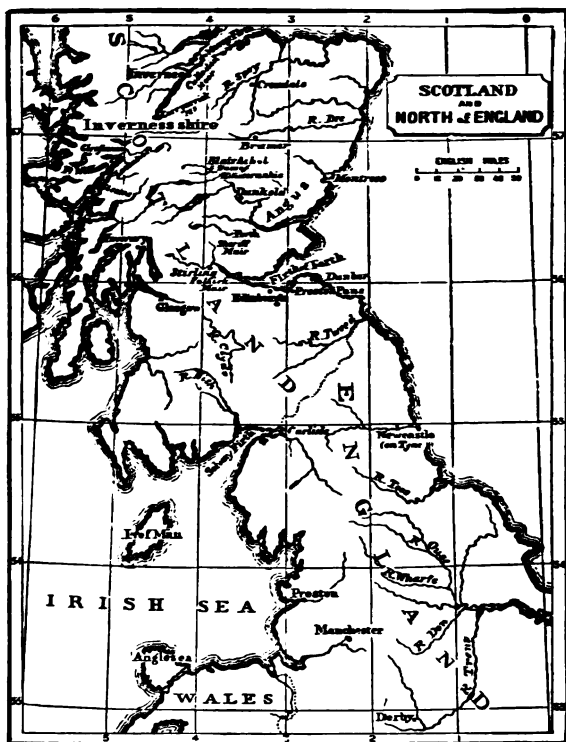
1. Walpole and the Excise Bill.—In 1727 George I. died. His son, George II., who succeeded him, retained Walpole as Prime Minister. In the House of Commons, some members opposed him, because he had turned them out of office, or because he would not bribe them enough. A few, amongst them William Pitt, then a young man, found fault with him because they thought that bribes ought not to be given. Yet, as he was always prudent, it was difficult to turn him out of office. Once he proposed to levy an excise on certain goods when they were sold in the country instead of levying customs on them when they were brought into the country. In this way he expected to put an end to smuggling. People, however, took it into their heads that it would be tyrannical to send officers to their shops and houses to see what they had to sell; and they fancied that they would have to pay more than they had paid before. Though Walpole knew that this was not true, he gave up his proposal when he saw how excited the people were. He thought that no improvement was worth the risk of an insurrection.

2. Walpole and the War with Spain.—At last Walpole gave an excuse to his enemies to excite the people against him. In those days no country permitted its colonies to trade except with the natives of the mother-country.

In the Treaty of Utrecht, however, Spain had promised to allow one English ship to come once a year to sell goods in the Spanish colonies of South America. The English had tried to do more than this. They sent one great ship to an American port which unloaded its goods in the daytime. As soon as it was dark several smaller vessels which had kept at sea came up, and filled up the empty space in the large ship, so that a good many ship-loads were sold before the English departed. Besides this trickery there was much smuggling, and when the Spanish coastguards caught an English smuggler they treated him roughly. One man named Jenkins appeared before the House of Commons and pulled one of his ears out of a box, which he said had been cut off by the Spaniards. Probably his ear had been cut off in the pillory in England, but Englishmen believed his falsehood, and called on Walpole to go to war with Spain. Walpole believed that the war would be unjust, but he weakly consented to declare war. Whenever English fleets or armies did not succeed so well as people expected, they threw the blame on Walpole, and at last, in 1742, the House of Commons turned him out of office. If he had resigned earlier rather than act against his conscience he would probably have been back in office before long.

3. The Ministry of the Pelhams.—After a short time the leading ministers were two brothers. The younger, Henry Pelham, was Prime Minister. The elder, the Duke of Newcastle, was very ignorant, but he knew how to keep members of Parliament in good humour by giving away money and offices, as Walpole had done.

Sometimes he rushed out of his dressing-room, with his face covered with soapsuds, to assure somebody, whose vote he wanted, that he had a good place to give him. He used to lash himself up into such a state of excite-



ment over these bargains, that it was said of him that he got up half an hour too late in the morning, and was running about all day to try to catch it.

4. The Young Pretender.—The most serious thing

during the ministry of the Pelhams, was the landing in Scotland of Charles Edward, the 'Young Pretender' as he was called, to fight for the cause of his father, the Old Pretender, the son of James II. The Highlanders joined him, and he defeated the English at Prestonpans, and marched south as far as Derby. As no one in England would support him he had to retreat to Scotland. He there defeated another English army at Falkirk, but was totally overthrown by the king's son, the Duke of Cumberland, at Culloden. Cumberland behaved with great cruelty to the wounded Highlanders, and to the day of his death he was always known as the 'Butcher.' Charles Edward for some time wandered about the Highlands in various disguises. Not a Highlander would betray him, though a large sum of money was offered by the government for his surrender. At last he escaped to France.

5. Death of Henry Pelham.—Henry Pelham lived for eight years after the Battle of Culloden, doing his business quietly and offending nobody. His ministry was known as the 'Broad-bottomed Administration,' because he allowed anyone to take part in it whatever his political views might be. He died in 1754. 'Now,' said the old king, 'I shall have no peace.'

coast'-guards: men who patrol the coast to prevent smuggling.

Cul'-lod'-en: a moor in Scotland, lying a few miles east of Inverness.

Fal'-kirk: a town in Scotland near the Southern shores of the Western end of the Firth of Forth.

Pres'-ton-pans: a town on the Southern shores of the Firth of Forth.

pru'-dent: careful; cautious.

smugg'-ling: bringing goods into the country secretly to avoid paying the duty or tax on them.

sur-ren'-der: giving up.

ty'-ran-nis-ing: ruling over with harshness, like a tyrant.

CHAPTER XLI.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

1. Englishmen Spread over the World.—The wars which England had hitherto waged had been waged for power on the Continent of Europe. Englishmen had, however, for some years, gone forth to trade and colonise, and, before the end of the reign of George II., England was at war with France, not on account of anything that had happened in Europe, but on account of things that had happened in America and Asia.

2. English and French in America.—In the time of James I. and Charles I. many Englishmen had settled in that part of America which is now known as the United States. Those who went to the southern part, went, as people now go to Australia or Canada, because they wanted land to cultivate, and had not enough money to buy it in England. Those who went to New England, in the north, went because they were Puritans, and wanted to be allowed to worship God in their own way. The descendants of the settlers had increased in number, and in the reign of George II. there were thirteen English colonies in America, all living along the Atlantic coast. Only a few of them ever crossed the Alleghany Mountains into the country watered by the Ohio River, and covered with forests, in which the Indians hunted the fur-covered animals, and sold their furs to Europeans. Very few of the Indians were friendly to the English, as they feared lest they might plough up their lands and

drive them away. They were much more friendly to the French, who at that time possessed Lower Canada, and who wanted to buy furs from the Indians, and not to



turn their lands into cornfields. Before long the French and English began to fight in America, and to fight in Europe also.

3. William Pitt and the Duke of Newcastle.—When

the war began which is known as the Seven Years' War, the Duke of Newcastle was Prime Minister ; but he was quite unable to manage a war, because he was so timid that he was always thinking that the people would want to put him to death if anything went wrong. William Pitt was a very different man. He had kept himself pure, when everyone around him had been giving or taking bribes ; and when he became the leading minister it was arranged that he should manage the war, whilst Newcastle bribed the members of Parliament, who would not vote for a government unless they were paid for it. Pitt sent Wolfe to conquer Canada. He defeated the French, but died in the moment of victory. Canada was conquered by his successor, and the French had to submit to the English in the lands about the river of St. Lawrence. In Europe Frederick II., King of Prussia, was allied to the English, and the French were defeated by him in a great battle at Rosbach. At sea the English navy got the better of the French near Quiberon. In India, too, the English established themselves. For some time there had been struggles there between the English and the French. The English now got the upper hand, and the French were confined to a few small settlements. Only a little part of the whole country came into English hands. Bombay, however, with Madras and Calcutta were theirs, and they gained a large part of the country round Calcutta.

4. The English Empire.—In Pitt's time the foundation of the English Empire was laid. Hitherto England had been only one of the nations of Europe. Englishmen, or men of English birth, now occupied the lands from the

north coast of Florida to the lands to the north of the St. Lawrence, and they held part of India as well. The English language was spoken both in the West and in the East. The day would come when it would be spoken by millions, where, in Pitt's time, it was spoken by thousands. The English were able to establish themselves in these distant regions partly because they were more vigorous than the French, but also because they lived in an island, and had not therefore, like the French, to exhaust themselves by providing large armies to meet the armies of their neighbours.

5. The Accession of George III. and the End of the War.—Pitt was not content with establishing English power in Canada and India. He knew that the Spaniards were ready to join the French, and he wanted to declare war against Spain, and to seize the colonies of Spain as well as those of France. Before this, in 1760, George II. died and was succeeded by his grandson George III. The young king, and most of the other ministers, thought that England had had enough of war, and Pitt resigned office. After all Spain joined France and was then beaten as thoroughly as the French had been beaten before. In 1763, however peace was made, and Spain got back her colonies, though France did not.

Al-le-gha'-ny Mountains (or Appalachian Mountains): lie in the United States nearly parallel to the East coast.

col'-on-ise: to settle bodies of people in a strange land.

Flor'-i-da: a peninsula now a state in the South-East of the United States; but in Pitt's time a

colony of Spain.

O'-hi-o River: a tributary of the Mississippi River.

Qui'-ber-on: a peninsula on the Northern shores of the Bay of Biscay.

Ros'-bach: a town in Hesse, Germany.

CHAPTER XLII.

THE DOWNFALL OF THE WHIGS.

1. George III. and the Whigs.—From the beginning of his reign George III. had been trying to get rid of the Whig ministers, and to fill their places with Tories who would be content to carry out his orders. He could not accomplish this, as Charles I. had tried to do, by defying the House of Commons, and he was obliged to gain the members of Parliament to his own side. He therefore set to work to gain votes by giving offices away to the friends and relations of the members, on the understanding that the members would vote for him, especially as many of those who held offices were well paid and had frequently nothing whatever to do. In this way he gradually obtained the support of the House of Commons. Yet it took him some time to gain his ends, and he was obliged to accept George Grenville, who was a Whig, as his Prime Minister.

2. The Stamp Act.—Grenville was not a wise man, and he thought that he could make the Americans bear part of the expenses of the last war. He accordingly persuaded the British Parliament to pass a Stamp Act, ordering the Americans to pay money for stamps to be placed on their law-papers. The Americans were angry and said that the British Parliament had no right to tax them. Before it was known in England how angry they were, George III. had succeeded in turning Grenville out of office, but he had been obliged to replace him

by another Whig, Lord Rockingham. The Whigs led by Rockingham were never popular. They would not bribe, and all who wanted to receive bribes took part against him. They offended others because most of them were wealthy noblemen and gentlemen, who did not mix with the people. Rockingham himself was a well-meaning, timid man. The best thing we know of him was that he listened respectfully to Edmund Burke, who was neither rich himself nor related to rich men, but who was the wisest man in England. By the advice of Burke, Rockingham asked Parliament to repeal the Stamp Act. As soon as the British Parliament left off taxing the Americans the Americans became once more quiet and loyal.

3. The Tea Duties.—Before long the king turned out Rockingham. He created Pitt Earl of Chatham, and made him Prime Minister. Chatham might have done great things if he had retained his health, but he became so ill that he was unable to attend to business, and the other ministers were foolish enough to try and get money from the Americans again. This time they imposed duties on the import of tea and other articles at the American ports.

4. Wilkes and the Middlesex Election.—The fact was that the House of Commons only thought of making people do as it pleased, just as Charles I. had done more than a hundred years before. At home the Middlesex electors chose a man named Wilkes as their member of Parliament. His character was very bad, and, on the ground that he had misbehaved himself, the House of Commons not only expelled him, but when the electors

again and again persisted in choosing him, declared that another candidate who had received only a few votes was to sit in the House as member for Middlesex. Soon afterwards, Chatham recovered his health and declared in the House of Lords that the House of Commons had no right to set aside the votes of the electors of Middlesex, and that Parliament had no right to tax America.

5. Lord North becomes Prime Minister.—The king would not listen to Chatham's advice. He made Lord North Prime Minister. Lord North was a Tory. The Tories thought that the king, and not the Whig noblemen ought to choose the ministers. Lord North was a sensible man, but he allowed himself to be persuaded to do whatever George III. told him to do. He was very fat, and used to go to sleep in the House of Commons whilst the members were abusing him. The House supported him, partly because many of its members were bribed in various ways, but still more because the Whigs were disliked, and because most Englishmen thought it quite right that the Americans should pay their share of the expenses of a war which had been fought to save them from being injured by the French in Canada.

ex-pell'-ed : thrust out ; turned out.

Edmund Burke : a statesman, orator, and political writer ; born

in Dublin, 1730, and died at Beaconsfield, 1797.

im-pos'-ed : put upon.

loy'-al : true to king and country.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE AMERICAN WAR.

1. The Beginning of the War.—The Americans made up their minds to pay no taxes to the British Government. Rather than pay duty on tea, a troop of forty or fifty men disguised as Red Indians, rushed on board a ship laden with tea, which had arrived at Boston, and threw the whole cargo into the sea. The British Parliament passed laws to put down all resistance, and sent soldiers to America to enforce them. The Americans prepared to resist. In 1775 fighting began. The English people thought it would soon be over, as they were many and the Americans were few. Their soldiers were well disciplined, and the Americans had no regular soldiers at all. The Americans however, were fighting for their own land, whilst every British soldier had to be conveyed across the sea. The Americans, too, found George Washington not only a splendid general, but, what was better, a man who set an example of patience and self-denial, and who was entirely without ambition.

2. The Declaration of Independence.—The Americans had not been fighting long, when they issued a Declaration of Independence, asserting their right to be a free nation, no longer in subjection to British rule. At first it seemed doubtful whether they would be able to make good their words. Their army was almost starved to death. The horses died for want of forage, and for six days the men had no meat. There was scarcely a pair of shoes in the whole camp.

3. The Alliance between France and America.—When people show that they can defend themselves they often get help from others. This time it was France which came forward to assist the Americans. Lord North was frightened, but Chatham, old and ill as he was, came to the House of Lords to protest against acknowledging the independence of America. He had been wise enough to oppose the folly of those who had attempted to make the Americans pay taxes, but he was too proud of the greatness of England to consent to the separation of America from the mother-country. ‘As long,’ he said, ‘as I can crawl down to this House, and have strength to raise myself on my crutches, or lift my hand, I will vote against giving up the dependency of America or the sovereignty of Great Britain.’ Chatham tried to speak again, but he staggered and fell, struck down by apoplexy. After a few days he died.

4. The Fall of North’s Ministry.—If Chatham had lived he could not have brought America back into subjection. Fighting went on and Spain joined the enemies of England. At last an English army under Lord Cornwallis was shut up in Yorktown. The Americans hemmed it in on the land side, and a French fleet blocked it up by sea. Cornwallis was forced to surrender. Lord North knew that it was impossible to struggle longer, and though George III. wished to continue the war, Lord North resigned office, and Rockingham became Prime Minister a second time.

5. End of the War.—Lord Rockingham at once opened negotiations with France and America. Before they were completed, he died, and the king named Lord Shel-

burne as his successor. Shelburne went on with the arrangements for peace, though the treaty was not signed till after he had left office. In 1783 peace was made with



France, and the Independence of America was acknowledged by Great Britain. Both then and since many have looked back with regret to the day which put an

end to the hope that all English-speaking peoples might continue united under the same Government. Yet there can be no doubt that England had received a lesson which she well deserved. The members of the House of Commons had got into a habit of thinking that they could do whatever suited them, without taking into account the wishes of others. The resistance of America had taught them the lesson that, powerful as the English government was, it could not do as it pleased. From that time there was more consideration for the wishes of the governed in England itself than there had been before.

am-bi'-tion: a thirst for power or fame.

a'-po-plex-y: a loss of sensation and of the power of motion caused suddenly by a pressure of blood on the brain.

Bos'-ton: a seaport on the Eastern shores of the United States.

for'-age: food for horses, such as oats, hay, &c.

ne-go-ti-a'-tions: attempts to come

to terms or make peace.

Red Indians: a name given to the original inhabitants of North America on account of their colour.

re-sign'-ed: gave up.

se-par-a'-tion: going apart.

sur-ren'-der-ed: yielded or gave up.

York'-town: a town on the East coast of the United States.

CHAPTER XLIV.

FROM THE END OF THE AMERICAN WAR TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1. **Formation of the Coalition Ministry.**—Shelburne was soon turned out of office. The friends of Rockingham did not like him, and their leader Charles James Fox, who was a great orator, and one of the most amiable of men, had quarrelled with him. Fox and his friends

declared that the king had no right to choose Shelburne as Prime Minister, and resigned office rather than serve under him. Though they were Whigs they made an arrangement with North and his friends, to whom they had been bitterly opposed during the American War, to join them in attacking Shelburne. As they had more votes together than Shelburne had, Shelburne was obliged to resign, and a new ministry was formed, which is known as the 'Coalition Ministry,' because Fox coalesced in it with North.

2. The Contest between Pitt and the Coalition Ministry.—

The Coalition Ministry proposed a law about the government of India, which offended many people. The king, who was angry at the attack on Shelburne, turned it out of office, and made William Pitt, son of Chatham, Prime Minister. He was only twenty-four, and no one so young had ever been Prime Minister before. Fox and North had many more votes than he had, but though the House of Commons voted that he ought to resign, by degrees members of Parliament, who only voted against him because they thought his opponents were going to win, came over to his side. The fact was that they only wanted to get offices for themselves and their friends, and they had come to think that Pitt had more chance than Fox and North of having offices to give away. Quiet people, who were not members of Parliament, thought that it was scandalous that Fox and North, who had recently been abusing one another, should bring their quarrel to an end in order to get into office. Pitt therefore advised the king to dissolve Parliament. A new Parliament was elected, in which Pitt had a large majority.

3. Pitt and Public Opinion.—The support given to the young minister by the electors would not have been of much use thirty years before. The fact was that many more people cared about what passed in Parliament in the time of the younger Pitt than had cared about such matters in the time of his father. One cause of this was that, just before the American War broke out, the House of Commons allowed the speeches of its members to be printed in the newspapers, so that more interest was taken in politics. Another cause was that the country gentlemen, who for the most part took Pitt's side, were now better educated, and more anxious to do their duty. There had also been great improvements in manufactures, and the manufacturers threw themselves on the side of Pitt, because they did not like to see the government of England in the hands of the great noblemen.

4. Pitt's Reforms.—Pitt wished to make wise reforms. He succeeded in persuading Parliament to approve of a commercial treaty with France the object of which was to lower the duties on French goods, on condition that the French should lower the duties on English goods. He also carried through Parliament a law which brought the government of India under the control of the government of Great Britain. He failed in inducing Parliament to reform itself, that is to say, to allow more persons to elect members of Parliament than before, partly because his own government was so good that the English people were not anxious to change a system which threw no obstacles in his way.

5. The King's Illness and Recovery.—After Pitt had

been Prime Minister for nearly five years the king went out of his mind. It was agreed that there should be a Regent to act for him, and that his eldest son, the Prince of Wales, who was afterwards George IV., was to be the Regent. The Prince's character, however, was so bad that everyone was delighted when it was known that the king had recovered his health. George III. went to St. Paul's to return thanks for his recovery. The streets were crowded as he passed, and, at night, all London was illuminated. He had now a minister who ruled well, and besides, there were hundreds of people who took no interest in politics, but who were pleased to hear of the welfare of the good old king, who liked better to dine on a leg of mutton than on more luxurious food. They only laughed pleasantly when they heard a story which had been invented against him, that he had been puzzled to know how the apple got inside a dumpling.

co-al-esc'-ed : joined together.

il-lu'-min-at-ed : lighted up brilliantly as a mark of joy.

or'-a-tor : a public speaker ; a man of eloquence.

Re'-gent : one who for the time

being rules in place of the king.

re-sign'-ed : gave up.

scan'-da-lous : shameful.

St. Paul's : the chief cathedral in London and the largest Protestant church in the world.

CHAPTER XLV.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION TO THE PEACE OF AMIENS.

1. **The French Revolution.**—In 1789, shortly after the king's recovery, the French Revolution began. For many years France had been governed as badly as possible. The taxes were not fairly imposed ; poor people had to

pay heavily, whilst the rich people were let off easily. There were also other abuses, and the King of France, Louis XVI., was a well-meaning man, but was not wise enough to set things straight. He was much in debt, and he called together an Assembly which took the name of the National Assembly. Before long it tried to make changes which the king disliked, and the king tried to force it to do as he wished. There was an insurrection in Paris, which so frightened the king that he let the Assembly act as it pleased. A little later he was brought to Paris, and though he was still called a king he was more like a prisoner. In 1792 the Prussians and Austrians invaded France, in order to help the king. The people thought that he wished the foreign armies to succeed. They rose in insurrection and a new Assembly called the National Convention was chosen, which deposed him and established a Republic. At the beginning of 1793, the Convention sentenced him to death, on the charge of favouring the enemies of France. He was executed on the guillotine, an instrument which had been invented to cut off heads quickly.

2. War between England and France.—When the French Revolution began, people in England were much pleased, thinking that France was going to have a parliamentary government like our own. When news came of murders and riots Englishmen were shocked, and they were still more shocked when they heard that the king had been beheaded. Pitt had done all he could to keep peace, but when the king had been executed, and the French, who had conquered the Austrian Netherlands, which are now known as Belgium, threatened to

conquer Holland as well, he thought it necessary to interfere, and England joined Austria and Prussia in the war against France. On land the French gained one victory after another. At sea English sailors defeated the French fleet in a battle at the mouth of the Channel, which is known as the Battle of the First of June, and afterwards in 1797, when Spain joined France, they



GUILLOTINE.

defeated a Spanish fleet in the Battle of Cape St. Vincent. In 1798 the French sent General Bonaparte to conquer Egypt. Admiral Nelson sailed after him, and in the Battle of the Nile destroyed the fleet which had brought him. He himself had landed with his army, but he afterwards came back to France, leaving his army behind him to be overpowered by an English force.

3. Irish Difficulties.—In Ireland there were continual difficulties. There was an Irish Parliament sitting at Dublin, but it was composed entirely of Protestants. The Roman Catholics wanted to become members, and Pitt was ready to help them. The old king, however, thought it would be wicked to allow Roman Catholics to have any power, and that if they had it, they would use it to hurt the Protestants. As most of his English subjects agreed with him Pitt was obliged to give up his plan. To the Irish it seemed hopeless to expect any good from England, and a society was formed called ‘The United Irishmen.’ They invited a French fleet and army to help them. The fleet and army came, but it went away again without doing anything. In 1798 the Irish rose in rebellion. The rebels burnt houses and murdered people. The Irish Protestants who took the side of the English government were as cruel as the rebels, and killed without mercy all they met. At last the rebellion was put down, and the Irish Catholics were treated with terrible brutality. Pitt had no wish to see these atrocities continue, and he sent over a new Lord Lieutenant—Lord Cornwallis—to put a stop to the mischief.

4. The Union with Ireland.—Ireland was divided between two parties hating each other bitterly. Pitt proposed to unite the two Parliaments and, at the same time, to admit the Irish Catholics to offices and to seats in Parliament. The Irish Parliament seemed likely to object to the proposed union, but many of the members were ready to sell their votes for money or promotion. Pitt bought their votes, and the union was agreed to. Unfortunately when he proposed this plan for the relief of the

5. Addington's Ministry.—The successor of Pitt was Addington, a well-meaning man, but not a very wise one. Bonaparte, after he came back from Egypt, made himself First Consul, and was master of France. Long before, the Prussians had made peace with France, and Bonaparte now defeated the Austrians in Italy. A peace with Austria soon followed. In 1802 peace between England and France was signed at Amiens, and the fighting came to an end for a time all over Europe.

a-troc'i-ties: great cruelties.

bru-tal'i-ty: acting as a brute would; inhumanly.

de-pos'-ed: turned off the throne.

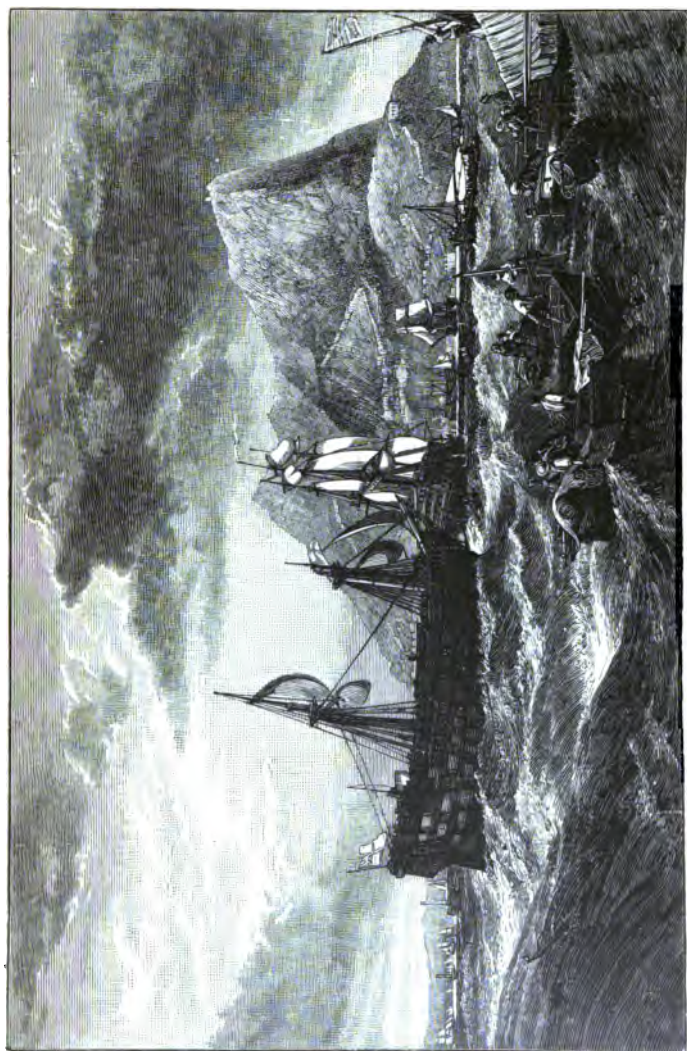
A'-miens: a town in the north of France on the River Somme.

Re'-pub-lic: a form of government which depends either upon the whole people, or upon a large number of them, and which has no hereditary chief.

CHAPTER XLVI.

FROM THE PEACE OF AMIENS TO THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO.

1. Pitt's Second Ministry.—The Peace of Amiens soon came to an end, as Bonaparte had no intention of leaving other nations alone. When the war began Bonaparte collected an army at Boulogne in the hope that he would be able to invade England. Addington was not thought capable of governing England at such a time of danger. The king asked Pitt to become Prime Minister again. Pitt proposed that, as Whigs and Tories were equally ready to defend England against a French invasion, a ministry should be formed of the best men of both parties. Pitt and Fox were quite ready to be reconciled,



VI.

N

THE 'VICTORY' TOWED INTO GIBRALTAR. (*Stanfield.*)

but the king would not hear of employing Fox as a minister, as he had never forgiven him for joining North in the Coalition Ministry. Not only did Fox's Whig followers refuse to take office without their leader, but even Lord Grenville, who had been a colleague of Pitt in his last ministry, refused to serve unless Fox was admitted. 'I will teach that proud man,' said Pitt, 'that I can do without him.' Pitt became Prime Minister, but he had to fill the other offices with inferior men.

2. Trafalgar and Austerlitz.—In 1804 Bonaparte took the title of Napoleon, Emperor of the French. In 1805 he gave up his plan for the invasion of England, because the English fleet was too strong to give him a chance of bringing French ships into the Channel to guard the sea whilst the French army crossed over. Before the end of the year the French and Spanish fleet was destroyed by Lord Nelson at the Battle of Trafalgar, though Nelson himself was killed. During the remainder of the war no French or Spanish fleet put to sea. Yet so deeply was Nelson beloved in England that it was doubtful, when the news of the battle arrived, whether joy for the victory, or sorrow for the loss of the great sailor, was most deeply felt. Before the year was over Napoleon won a great battle at Austerlitz over the Austrians and Russians. After that Napoleon had his own way on the Continent.

3. The Ministry of All the Talents.—Early in 1806 Pitt died, worn out with the labours of his office, and saddened by the bad news from Austerlitz. Lord Grenville now became Prime Minister, and Fox served under him as Secretary of State, the king having abandoned his

objection to him. The ministry thus formed was known as the 'Ministry of all the Talents.' Fox died soon, but he lived long enough to secure one great reform by persuading Parliament to pass a law forbidding Englishmen to carry black men across the Atlantic into slavery. The ministry did not last long after his death.

4. The Struggle with Napoleon.—For some time England was alone in fighting against the tyranny of Napo-



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

leon, as in 1807 the powers on the Continent which continued to resist him gave up the struggle. Gradually, however, the nations of Europe rose against him. In 1808 he tried to force Spain to submit to his brother as king. The Spaniards rose against the Frenchman, and an English army was sent to their help. The commander of it was, after a while, Sir Arthur Wellesley,

who was made Lord Wellington, and Duke of Wellington before the war was over. At first he had great difficulties, as the French army was much more numerous than his own. In 1812, however, Napoleon invaded Russia, where his army was frozen to death. In 1813 Germany rose against him, and in 1814, whilst the Germans and Russians invaded France from the east, Wellington, who had defeated the French armies in Spain, invaded France from the south. Napoleon was forced to abdicate, and was sent to Elba, whilst Louis, a brother of the king who had been guillotined in the Revolution, became King of France as Louis XVIII.

5. The Battle of Waterloo.—Louis XVIII. was not popular in France, and in 1815 Napoleon succeeded in escaping from Elba. The French soldiers joined their old general, and Napoleon was once more master of the country. The other nations were too much afraid of him to allow him to reign, and determined to make war upon him. The English army under Wellington and the Prussian under Blücher were the first to be ready. At Waterloo they defeated him entirely, and Napoleon was this time sent to St. Helena, an island in the middle of the Atlantic. He was there kept in safety till he died, that he might no more trouble the nations which he had afflicted so long.

Aus-ter-litz: at some distance
N.W. of Vienna, in Moravia.

ab'-di-cate: resign; leave.

Bou-logne': a town on the North-
East coast of France.

col'-league: one who is joined
with another in the same office.

El'-ba: a small island near the

West coast of Italy.

in-fe'-ri-or: lesser; lower in rank
or office.

re'-con-cil-ed: restored to friend-
ship or agreement.

St. Hel'-en-a: a lonely island in the
Atlantic Ocean.

Wa'-ter-loo: in Belgium.

CHAPTER XLVII.

**FROM THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO TO THE DEATH
OF GEORGE IV.**

1. General Distress.—There was much distress in England after the war was over, and as both the agricultural labourers and the artisans in the towns were very miserable, they listened to all kinds of schemes which were proposed for the improvement of their condition. One suggestion was that if Parliament was reformed, and a vote given to every man, things would mend. They forgot that at that time the greater number of men in England could neither read nor write, and that it might be dangerous to subject the government to the control of those who were so ignorant. There were disturbances in some parts of the country, and the government getting frightened put them down by force. In 1820 old George III., who had long been blind and out of his mind, died, and was succeeded by George IV.

2. Canning, Peel, and Huskisson.—The Prime Minister at this time was Lord Liverpool, but in 1822 the ministry was joined by two new ministers, Canning and Peel. Canning took charge of Foreign Affairs, and did his best to help the peoples of Europe to decide what their own government should be, in spite of the Emperors of Austria and Russia and the Kings of France and Prussia, who wished to prevent the peoples of the smaller states from having any control over their rulers. Peel looked after English affairs, and did his best to improve the condition of the people. Two good men, Sir Samuel

Romilly and Sir James Macintosh had been trying to reform the criminal law, so that people might no longer be hanged for slight offences such as stealing a few pocket-handkerchiefs out of a shop. Peel got a law passed putting an end to this cruelty, and it was now known that there was a man in the government who might be trusted to make wise reforms. Another minister, Huskisson, led the way in making trade with other nations easier, by diminishing the payments made when foreign goods were brought into the country.

3. The Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.—In 1827 Lord Liverpool died, and was succeeded as Prime Minister by Canning, who did not live long enough to accomplish much. After a short interval, the Duke of Wellington became Prime Minister and Peel was again Home Secretary. In 1828 the new ministers agreed to a Bill proposed by the Whig Lord John Russell repealing the Test and Corporation Acts which had been passed in the reign of Charles II. After this Dissenters could hold offices as well as other people.

4. Catholic Emancipation.—The ministers had given way about the Dissenters, but for some time they refused to allow Catholics to sit in Parliament. A Catholic, O'Connell, was elected by an Irish county, yet he was by law unable to take his seat. It was almost certain that when the next election came, the larger part of the Irish constituencies would return Catholics. Both Wellington and Peel had been strong opponents of any change of the law which would allow Catholics to sit in Parliament, thinking that if they got power they would use it to injure the Protestants. Wellington, however,

was afraid lest, if he continued to refuse, civil war would break out in Ireland. He had, however, experienced what a terrible thing war is, and he had no wish to see it at home. Both he and Peel, therefore, resolved to give way. The Catholic Emancipation Act was passed, and from that time Catholics have had equal rights with their Protestant fellow-subjects.

5. Parliamentary Reform.—For some time there had been talk about Parliamentary Reform. There were many great towns—such as Birmingham, Manchester, and Leeds—which sent no members to Parliament, whilst many little villages sent two members apiece. Sometimes even there were no villagers to vote. One gentleman sent two members to Parliament only because he owned a ruined wall which had once formed part of a village. Another gentleman sent two members because he owned a grassy mound on which there was not even a wall. In the county of Bute, in Scotland, there were only twenty-one electors. On one occasion only one of these appeared at the time of the election. He voted for himself and so became a member of Parliament. Yet, bad as the system was, the Duke of Wellington and many others were afraid to alter it, lest if a large number of persons became electors, they should use their power to seize the property of all who had more than themselves.

art'-i-san: one skilled in any art or trade; a mechanic.

ag-ri-cul'-tur-al la'-bour-ers: men who earn their living by working for wages in tilling the land.

con-sti'-tu-en-cies: a constituency is a body of people by whose

votes a member of Parliament is elected.

crim'-in-al law: the law which relates to the trying of persons guilty of crime.

re-peal'-ing: making a law no longer of force.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

REIGN OF WILLIAM IV.

1. The New Reign and the Reform Bill.—In 1830, George IV. died, and was succeeded by his brother, William IV. There was a new Parliament which turned out the Duke of Wellington. The next Prime Minister was Lord Grey, whose colleagues were partly Whigs and partly followers of Canning. They all resolved to support Parliamentary Reform, and a Bill was introduced by Lord John Russell to carry it out. By this Bill a very large number of persons would have votes who never had them before, and the right of electing members would be taken away from the villages, and given to the counties and the larger towns.

2. The Beginning of the Struggle for the Reform Bill.—The new Bill had many friends and many enemies. When the vote was taken, it was approved by a majority of only one. As there were some even in this majority who wished the Bill to be altered, Parliament was dissolved, and in a new Parliament a large majority was in favour of the Bill. All over the country shouts were heard of ‘The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill.’ A second Bill was accepted by the Commons but rejected by the Lords.

3. Conflict between the Houses.—The news of the rejection of the Bill was received by the country with indignation, and in some towns there were riots and disturbances. In the House of Commons, Macaulay—then

a young man, afterwards famous as the historian—called on his fellow-members to prevent these deeds of violence. ‘In old times,’ he said, ‘when the villeins were driven to revolt by oppression, when a hundred thousand insurgents appeared in arms on Blackheath, the king rode up to them, and exclaimed, “I will be your leader;” and, at once, the infuriated multitude laid down their arms, and dispersed at his command. Herein let us imitate him. Let us say to our countrymen: “We are your leaders. Our lawful powers shall be firmly exerted to the utmost in your cause; and our lawful power is such that it must finally prevail.”’ In the country there were some attempts to use force. At Birmingham, a great meeting was held by a society called the ‘Birmingham Political Union,’ at which those who were present engaged to pay no taxes if the Reform Bill were again rejected. At Nottingham the castle was burnt, and at Bristol houses were fired and lives were lost.

4. The Reform Bill becomes Law.—Fortunately, the government and the House of Commons were in earnest in their desire to be the leaders of the people. A third Bill was passed through the Commons, and the ministers persuaded the king to allow it to be known that he was ready to create new peers, if necessary, to vote for the Bill in the House of Lords. On this, many of the peers, thinking they had carried on the struggle long enough, stayed away from the House when the time of voting came, and in the spring of 1832 the Bill was accepted by the Lords, and became law.

5. The Reformed Parliament.—When the first Parliament, elected in the new fashion met, it passed many

excellent laws. Instead of talking about Whigs and Tories, men began to call the two parties 'Liberals' and 'Conservatives.' The leader of the Conservatives was Sir Robert Peel, and the king, having tired of the Whigs, dismissed them, and made Peel Prime Minister. There were new elections, and there were many more Conservatives in this Parliament than in the last, but there were not enough to form a majority, and Peel resigned, and was succeeded by Lord Melbourne and the Whigs.

6. Lord Melbourne's Ministry.—Lord Melbourne did some good things, but he was not very successful. He was an easy-going man, who did not like taking trouble. In 1837, before he had been in office many years, King William died, and was succeeded by his niece, Queen Victoria.

Black'-heath : an open space in the South-East of London, of which a great part is now built over.

dis-pers'-ed : spread abroad in all directions.

in-dig-na'-tion : anger mixed with scorn.

in-fu'-ri-a-ted : enraged ; made extremely angry.

in-surg'-ents : rebels ; people who resist the authority of the king.

re-sign'-ed : gave up office.

vil'-leins : the serfs who in the middle ages had a little land for which they paid rent, not in money, but in service, such as ploughing or reaping for their landlord.

CHAPTER XLIX.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF VICTORIA TO THE REPEAL OF THE CORN LAW.

1. The Corn Law and the Duties on Foreign Goods.—Soon after the end of the great war with France a law had been made imposing a duty on imported corn. Land,

it was said, would go out of cultivation if the price of corn was as low as it would be if foreign corn was allowed to be imported freely. The consequence of this law was that bread was dear. Other things also were dear. Foreign goods of every kind had to pay duty, and as English manufacturers knew that the foreigner could not undersell them, they did not care to find out how to manufacture cheaply. The consequence was, that they could not sell nearly as much of their goods as they would have liked.

2. Distress of the People.—The consequence was that both the agricultural and the manufacturing poor were in great distress. Wages were low, and the price of food was high. In the beginning of Victoria's reign thousands were out of work, and their wives and children starving.

3. The People's Charter.—When people are miserable the first thing that they think of is that, if they had political power, they would set everything right, and so it was now. Large numbers of men supported what was called 'The People's Charter,' and were therefore called Chartists. They asked for: (1) manhood suffrage; (2) division of the kingdom into equal electoral districts; (3) vote by ballot; (4) annual Parliaments; (5) permission for every man to be elected whether he had property in land or not; (6) payment to members of parliament. Two of these, the third and fifth, have now become law. The demands made frightened many people then. The Chartists were, however, right in wanting to be represented in Parliament. The Reform Bill had given votes to the shopkeepers, but to very few of the working-men. Still, it was probably as well that the working-men did not get votes till many years were past, when many

injustices had been removed, so that when they got power they were no longer angry with the other classes.

4. Peel and Commercial Free Trade.—The man who had set his heart on removing these injustices was Sir Robert Peel, who became Prime Minister in 1841. At first he was determined that the duty should still be paid on foreign corn, but he thought that trade would flourish if duties were lowered on foreign manufactured goods. Every year he took off duties ; and it was found that the more duties he took off, the more was the amount of money paid in taxes of other kinds. Manufacturers became richer when they could buy articles to use in their factories without having to pay duties on them. They could now pay higher wages, and the working-men were better off than they had been before.

5. The Anti-Corn-Law League.—There were in Lancashire a few men who devoted themselves to the work of persuading the people that it would be better if the duties were also taken off corn. Cobden and Bright established the Anti-Corn-Law League for the purpose of lecturing and printing pamphlets against the Corn Law. Naturally many of the landlords and farmers were opposed to the League, but, in spite of this, the League persevered. It converted many persons, and it half-converted Peel. What converted him entirely was the Irish Famine.

6. The Irish Famine and Free Trade in Corn.—In Ireland almost the whole crop of potatoes, on which a great part of the people lived entirely, was destroyed by the potato blight. Whole fields green and healthy when the sun went down were brown and withered when it rose.

Famine set in, and terrible suffering ensued. Peel, feeling it would be wicked to prevent corn entering Ireland without paying a duty, proposed to put an end to the Corn Law. When Parliament met, and he openly brought forward a Bill for its abolition, most of his followers were very angry. They formed a new party and were called 'Protectionists,' but some of his followers and all the Liberals supported him, and the Corn Law was repealed. The food of the people was no longer to be taxed.

a-bo-li'-tion: the act of abolishing
or doing away with.

bal'-lot: a method of voting by
which no one but the voter can
tell for whom he has voted.

fac'-tor-ies: buildings in which

things are manufactured.

im-port'-ed: brought into a country.

man'-hood suff'-rage: the right of
every man to vote in elections
for Parliament.

CHAPTER L.

FROM THE REPEAL OF THE CORN LAW TO THE SUPPRESSION OF THE INDIAN MUTINY.

1. Lord John Russell's Ministry.—Soon after Peel had passed the Bill for repealing the Corn Law, he was driven from office and was succeeded by Lord John Russell. In 1848 there were troubles in almost every European country. There was a revolution in France, King Louis Philippe was obliged to fly, and a republic was set up. In Italy, the kings and princes of the several States into which the country was divided, were forced to allow Parliaments to meet, and to make war on Austria, which ruled over a great part of Northern Italy. In Austria itself, and in Prussia, Parliaments were set up after insurrections. In London the Chartists

assembled in great numbers to petition Parliament to adopt the People's Charter; but greater numbers came forward as special constables to assist the Government in preventing violence. Since Free Trade had been established people were better off, and they were determined that if there were political changes at all they should not be made by force.

2. The Derby Ministry.—After a while the Earl of Derby became Prime Minister. He and Disraeli were the leaders of the Protectionists. They were obliged now to give up Protection and to declare themselves ready to accept Free Trade. It was of no use, as the majority in Parliament distrusted them, and they were obliged to resign.

3. The Crimean War.—If Peel had been still alive he would certainly now have become Prime Minister again. As he was dead a ministry was formed of Peel's followers and of Whigs under the Earl of Aberdeen. Before it had been long in office England joined with France, which was then governed by the Emperor Napoleon III., in a war with Russia, to prevent the Russians from making themselves masters of the Turkish Empire. Siege was laid in 1855 to the Russian port of Sebastopol in the Crimea, and the war is usually known as the Crimean War. Victories were gained at Alma and Inkerman, but the intense cold of the winter exposed the soldiers to terrible sufferings. The next year Sebastopol was taken, and peace was subsequently made.

4. The Beginning of the Indian Mutiny.—Before the Crimean War was ended the Aberdeen ministry was driven from office because it was thought that they had

not done enough to save the lives of the soldiers in the hard winter. They were succeeded by Lord Palmerston. Whilst he was at the head of the government the Indian Mutiny broke out. The army in India was composed for the most part of natives, and in Bengal the greater number of these natives were Hindoos, whose religion taught them that they would be defiled if they ate any part of a cow. A new cartridge had lately been served out to them, which had been greased in order that it might be rammed easily down the barrels of the guns. They imagined that the grease was cow's grease, and that as they had to bite the end off before putting the cartridge into the gun, they would certainly be defiled. One regiment after another, therefore, mutinied and murdered their officers. No mercy was shown to any Englishman who was taken, and English women and children were sometimes massacred as well as their husbands and fathers.

5. The Recovery of Delhi and the Relief of Lucknow.—

There was no mutiny in the south of India, and the soldiers in the north-western country known as the Punjab were not Hindoos, and remained staunch. Sir John Lawrence, who governed the Punjab, sent these troops to besiege Delhi, where the greater part of the mutineers had taken refuge. At last, after a long siege, Delhi was taken. At Lucknow, which was in possession of the mutineers, a small English force with women and children was cooped up in a single house with its outbuildings. Sir Henry Lawrence, the brother of Sir John, died, but his followers held out desperately. Unless help could reach them soon they would be either

starved or massacred. As it was shot poured in amongst them, killing even the wounded in the hospitals. One day mines exploded beneath their feet, and the enemy rushed in like a tide. With a desperate effort the place was cleared. So it went on, day after day, and week after week. Sickness and death were even more busy than the enemy's shot amongst the little band. At last Havelock—who had taught his men to pray as the Puritan soldiers did in the time of Cromwell—joined Outram, another soldier, in bringing help. At Lucknow it seemed that they were long in coming. At last some one heard the bagpipes of the Highlanders sounding behind the ranks of the foe. Havelock and Outram were there, indeed, and the sorely tried garrison was saved.

6. Final Suppression of the Mutiny.—Large numbers of the mutineers were still at large, and the British soldiers in India were not sufficient to overpower them all. After a while Sir Colin Campbell arrived with fresh troops, and peace was everywhere restored. The people of India had not taken part with the mutinous soldiers, so that they had no hostile feeling against the government after it was restored to power. Yet even then it was seen to be a difficult task so to govern India as to ensure justice to the inhabitants.

cart'-ridge: a case which contains the charge for a gun.

con'-sta-ble: an officer whose duty it is to keep order.

de-fil'-ed: made foul; corrupted.

mas'-sa-cred: murdered cruelly and with violence.

mu'-tin-ied: rose in rebellion against their officers.

Pun'-jab: the name given to a dis-

trict in the North-West of India watered by five tributaries of the River Indus.

re'-gi-ment: a division of the army consisting of about a thousand men.

re-vo-lu'-tion: putting down the government of a country and setting up one of another kind in its place.

CHAPTER LI.

FROM THE END OF THE INDIAN MUTINY TO
THE PASSING OF THE SECOND REFORM ACT.

1. **The French War in Italy.**—In 1859 the French emperor went to war to drive the Austrians out of Italy. Austria not only ruled its own possessions in the North of Italy, but employed its army to support any Italian tyrant who would keep his people down. Brave men had, therefore, long been forming schemes to set Italy free, but the Austrians had been too strong for them. Napoleon III. now came to their help, and together with the Sardinian army defeated the Austrians at Magenta and Solferino. He had wished to turn the Austrians out of Italy altogether, but the Prussians threatened to join the Austrians, and he was obliged to leave the Austrians in Venice and its neighbourhood. During the next few years, the other States in Italy asked Victor Emmanuel, the King of Italy, to come and rule them, and a new Kingdom of Italy was formed, comprising the whole peninsula except Venice and Rome. Before Victor Emmanuel died, he added Rome and Venice to his dominions, and there was thus formed a united Italy.

2. **The English Volunteers.**—Most Englishmen were well pleased that there should be another independent nation in Europe, but they did not trust the Emperor Napoleon. He had all sorts of schemes in his head, and nobody knew what he would do next. Some thought that he intended to invade England, to revenge the first

Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo. Thousands of active young men, therefore, offered to serve as volunteers, and were drilled to help in resisting an invasion if there should ever be one.

3. The Cotton Famine.—Whilst many Englishmen were training themselves to arms, others were showing bravery in another way. A great civil war broke out in America between the Southern States, which wished to maintain slavery, and the Northern States, which wished first to limit it, and ultimately to put it down altogether. Whilst the war continued cotton could not be shipped to England because the Southern ports were blockaded by the Northern States, and consequently there was very little cotton to be had to keep the cotton mills of Lancashire at work. Large numbers of English workmen were unable to find work. Yet they did not repine, because they believed that the North was in the right, and they bore suffering rather than ask their own government to interfere in favour of the South, in order to bring away the cotton which was stored in the Southern States.

4. A Second Reform Bill proposed.—There had been frequent proposals for a second Reform Bill, but the people had not been very earnest about the matter. In 1865 Lord Palmerston, who had been Prime Minister a second time for some years, died. His successor was an old man, Earl Russell, who had advocated Parliamentary Reform not long after the Battle of Waterloo was fought, and who had much to do with the first Reform Bill. The chief person in the ministry in the House of Commons was Mr. Gladstone. The ministers proposed a new Reform Bill, the object of which was to give votes to the

working-men in the towns, as the first Bill had given them to tradesmen. The House of Commons, however, would not accept the Bill, and the ministers resigned.

5. The Second Reform Act.—The next ministry was headed by Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli. It appeared that, though the House of Commons did not care about Reform, the working-men did. Meetings were, in many places, held in its favour. In London a large body of men resolved to hold a meeting in Hyde Park, to make speeches about Reform. The Government tried to shut them out, but they broke down the railings, and held their meeting. The Government then found out that it had no right to shut them out. It now appeared that the working-men were in earnest, and as soon as Parliament met Mr. Disraeli presented a Reform Bill which satisfied nobody. He then presented another, which was accepted. When the Reform Act became law, every householder who paid poor-rates in the larger towns had the right of voting, and everyone living in the country in a house worth ten pounds a year. The working-men, who had shown such endurance in the time of the cotton famine, would now have a voice in the making of the laws.

Act: a law which has been passed by the two Houses of Parliament, and has received the Royal assent.

Bill: a proposed law which is being discussed in Parliament before it receives the Royal assent.

block-ad'-ed: shut up by war-ships watching the entrances to har-

bours so that no ships could enter or leave.

in-va'-sion: making an attack.

Ma-gen'-ta and **Sol-fer-i'-no:** two places on the Northern plain of Italy.

vol-un-teer': one who offers of his own free will to perform a service.

CHAPTER LII.

RECENT HISTORY.

1. The Education Act.—Soon after the passing of the second Reform Act Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister. The greatest of the changes effected in England during his ministry was the passing of the Education Act. For many years grants of money had been made by Parliament to schools. By the law now made the people in districts where there were not sufficient schools were empowered to build schools at their own expense, and to elect a School Board which should have authority to compel parents, who were neglecting the education of their children, to send them to some efficient school.

2. The Ballot Act.—Another new thing was the introduction of voting by ballot at elections. Before this everyone had to give his vote openly, and many were afraid to vote as they thought right for fear of offending their employers or the people amongst whom they lived. Everyone now can vote according to his conscience.

3. The Disestablishment of the Irish Church, and the First Irish Land Act.—In Ireland one of the first acts of the new ministry had been to disestablish and disendow the Protestant Church, which was the Church of a minority of the people. An attempt was subsequently made to alter the land laws so as to secure justice between landlord and tenant. It was not a successful attempt, and fresh changes were afterwards thought to be necessary.

4. Mr. Disraeli's Ministry.—In 1874 a new Parliament was elected in which was a large Conservative majority. Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister. In his time there were troubles in the East—as the Turkish Government treated its subjects badly, and Russia made war against the Turks to protect the Christians. The war lasted about a year. In the end the Russians beat the Turks thoroughly. They made a treaty with the Sultan by which a great part of the provinces of Turkey in Europe were taken away from the Sultan and given to the people who lived in them. Mr. Disraeli, who had now become Earl of Beaconsfield, thought that Russia would make the people in those provinces obey its orders and would thus become too powerful. He and the English Government insisted that Russia should consult the other European states and make a new treaty, and he was prepared to go to war if this were not done. At last Russia gave way and a new treaty was drawn up in which some of the peoples were set free and others replaced under the rule of the Sultan. The troubles in the East, however, were not at an end, and never will be till the peoples in the country which had once been subjected to the Turks are allowed to govern themselves, and not to be ill-treated either by the Sultan or the Czar.

5. Mr. Gladstone's Second Ministry.—In 1880 Mr. Disraeli's ministry came to an end because he had engaged in wars in Africa and Asia, and it was thought that he was too fond of fighting. Mr. Gladstone formed a second ministry. Its chief difficulty was how to govern Ireland. Various plans have been proposed for the

making Ireland more prosperous and contented than it is, and there has been much strife and contention in England about this. Let us hope that the best solution will be found and that England and Ireland may grow to understand one another better, and to join heart and hand in every good work.

Con-ser'-va-tive: one of the great political parties in the state; the other is the Liberal party.

dis'-en-dow: to take away money that had formerly been settled on the Church.

dis-es-tab'-lish: to take away the

special privileges attached to a Church in consequence of its relations to the State.

mi-nor'-i-ty: the smaller number.

Sul'-tan: the despotic ruler over Turkey.

CHAPTER LIII.

THE CLOSE OF A CENTURY.

(1886-1901.)

Home Rule.—Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister for the third time in February, 1886. In April he introduced a bill proposing that Ireland should no longer send members to Westminster, but should have a Parliament at Dublin for the management of her own affairs. Some of the Liberals thought that the plan would destroy the union between Great Britain and Ireland, and with their aid the bill was defeated. Parliament was dissolved, the country declared against Home Rule, and Lord Salisbury took office. In 1892 there was another election; the Conservatives and 'Liberal Unionists' were in the minority. Mr. Gladstone formed his fourth ministry, and again introduced a Home Rule bill. This time it was carried in the

House of Commons, but the House of Lords threw it out by more than ten votes to one.

In 1894 Mr. Gladstone, who was then eighty-five, decided that he was too old to be of service to his country, and gave place to Lord Rosebery. With this step Home Rule ceased to be a burning question, for, though Lord Rosebery was in favour of it, he said that he would not attempt to grant it till the 'predominant partner,' England, felt it to be just and necessary. There was a majority against it at the general election next year, and Lord Salisbury again took office with several Liberal Unionists in his cabinet.

Mr. Gladstone died on the 19th of May, 1898. The years which he had spent in retirement dissipated the mists of party passion; the greatness of his mind, the nobility of his character, and the purity of his patriotism, were now clear to all men, and with a nation's lamentation he was buried in Westminster Abbey.

War in the Soudan.—Since 1883 England has had a large share in the government of Egypt, and the people are happy and prosperous. The Soudan formerly belonged to the Egyptians, but they were driven out by the fierce followers of a kind of Mahomedan prophet called the Mahdi. As these fanatics, after overrunning with fire and sword the lands which they had conquered, and defeating three forces sent against them, threatened Egypt itself, the English resolved to restore peace and order to the lost territory. The task was entrusted to Sir Herbert (now

Lord) Kitchener. A native army had been created after the method which we had learnt in India, and British troops were sent to help. Kitchener, having with infinite skill and patience and unbending will made his preparations, struck a crushing blow at Omdurman in September, 1898, and not long afterwards Khartoum was captured. The Khalifa (the successor of the dead Mahdi) was killed. The Soudan is now quiet and thriving.

The Boer War.—In 1881 Mr. Gladstone's administration recognised the independence in home affairs of the Transvaal, a republic founded by farmers of Dutch descent known as Boers. In 1886 the discovery of gold caused a rush of foreigners into the country. These were very heavily taxed, but denied any part in the management of public business. At the end of 1895 some of them conspired to overthrow the government, and induced Dr. Jameson to come with a small body of men to their assistance. As he was a British officer the Boers thought that Britain intended to take away their liberty, although he had acted against orders, and was imprisoned for his 'raid.' Their suspicion made the effort to improve the condition of the 'Outlanders' difficult, and peace was impossible after President Kruger had declared that if the English soldiers in South Africa were not sent home he would fight. The Orange Free State joined the Transvaal, and they at once invaded Natal and Cape Colony. Sir George White with a considerable force was shut up in Ladysmith, Colonel Kekewich with a smaller force in

Kimberley, and Baden Powell with a handful in lonely Mafeking. Even when Sir Redvers Buller arrived with an army disasters and failures were frequent. In one week of December, 1899, Lord Methuen was repulsed at Magersfontein, Gatacre beaten at Stormberg, and Buller defeated at Colenso.

The arrival of Lord Roberts as commander, with Lord Kitchener as chief of the staff, marked the turning of the tide. An army under Cronje, which had been facing Lord Methuen, was compelled to surrender; Ladysmith, Mafeking, and Kimberley were relieved, both the capitals were captured, and both the Republics were proclaimed British territory.

The death of Queen Victoria.—A war, costing the lives of so many of our bravest and best, clouded the last days of Queen Victoria, who died on the 22nd of January, 1901. No other English sovereign lived or reigned so long; no other sovereign ruled over so many lands or received the willing homage of so many hearts; no other sovereign was more loyally served; no other sovereign was so deeply loved or highly honoured. Her Jubilee had been celebrated in 1887, and her Diamond Jubilee in 1897, with world-wide rejoicings, which made all the units of her vast Empire feel that they were members of one brotherhood.

Australian Federation.—This feeling was deepened by the readiness with which every unit sent her gallant sons to fight the Empire's battles in South Africa; and when, in 1901, the Australian Colonies combined (as the North American Colonies had combined in 1867) we

seemed to have made a distinct advance towards that happy time

When the war-drum throbs no longer, and the battle flags are furled,
In the Parliament of man, the Federation of the world.

'Liberal Unionists': Liberals who thought that Home Rule would destroy the union with Ireland, and therefore voted with the Conservatives.

'Predominant Partner': Lord Rosebery compared England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales to a firm, in which England was the leading or predominant

partner.

Cabinet: the chief Ministers in a Government.

patriotism: love of country.

administration: government, ministry.

'Outlanders' (Uitlanders): the name given by the Boers to the foreigners.

CHAPTER LIV.

THE PRESENT CONSTITUTION.

1. The Crown.—During the two centuries which have followed the revolution which placed William and Mary on the throne, there have been many gradual changes in the Constitution. The Crown, that is to say the king or queen upon the throne, has less power now, and cannot stop the passing of a Bill into law by refusing the Royal Assent, or give office to one minister or take it from another at pleasure.

Nevertheless the influence of the sovereign for good is greater than in the days of William and Mary. Not only can he give the benefit of his experience in consultation with the ministers, but he can lead the way in many good works, which have nothing to do with political disputes, and can speak words of encouragement and condolence in the name of the whole nation. The

sovereign, in fact, by his existence continually reminds us that, however much we may differ on many points, we agree on more, and that we are like children of one family, whose duty it is to labour, according to the best of our talents, for the good of the nation as a whole.

2. The Ministry.—The business of governing the country is carried on by a body of men who are sometimes called the Ministry, and sometimes the Government, which is composed of men who agree together on the policy to be pursued. When the chief ministers meet together for consultation, they form what is called the Cabinet, but each of its members has some particular branch of the administration under his control. The First Lord of the Treasury sees that money is not spent unnecessarily, and when, as is usually the case, he is also Prime Minister, he gives advice to the other ministers, and keeps them on good terms with one another. The other principal ministers are the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who considers how taxes can best be levied; the First Lord of the Admiralty, who presides over the Navy; and the five Secretaries of State, who respectively manage the Colonies, India, the Army, Foreign Affairs, and the Home government of the country. These ministers must all be members of one House of Parliament or the other, in order that they may be able to defend their conduct publicly.

3. The Houses of Parliament.—Parliament still consists of two Houses, as it has consisted for nearly six hundred years. The House of Lords is composed: First, of the lay peers of England—dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, who are raised to that rank by the Crown, or who

have inherited the title from those who were raised at some former time; secondly, of representative peers elected by the peers of Scotland and Ireland; and, thirdly, of a certain number of bishops. The House of Commons is made up of men chosen by the constituencies, that is to say, by those men who live in a particular district, and who are allowed by law to give their votes in it.

4. Legislation.—One of the duties of Parliament is to make new laws. Any member of the House of Lords can bring in a Bill, and have it read for the first time, in order that it may be circulated and considered before it is further discussed. In the House of Commons this permission to bring in a Bill, and to have it read the first time, is sometimes, though not often, refused. The most important time with respect to a Bill is, however, its second reading. Any member who pleases can speak for it or against it, and then a vote is taken. If the majority votes that it shall be read a second time, it is understood that it approves of it as a whole, though, possibly, some of those who have voted for it think that it may be improved by alterations.

These alterations have to be considered at the next stage, when the House goes into Committee; that is to say, all the members continue to sit, though in a less formal way, any member being allowed to speak as often as he likes, whilst in the House he can only speak once on the same subject. The Bill is then discussed clause by clause and word by word. Anyone can propose changes, and some, and often very considerable, changes are made. When the whole of the Bill has been considered and amended, it is reported to the House,

and an opportunity is offered to correct any mistakes which may have been made in Committee. A vote is then taken to see whether the Bill is to be read a third time. If the vote is in the affirmative, the Bill is then sent to the other House, where it has to go through precisely the same process. Finally it is made law by receiving the Royal Assent, which is now never refused.

5. Parliamentary Control.—Another part of the duty of Parliament is to control the ministers. A member of the House of Commons, who thinks that anything is going wrong, has the right of asking a question of a minister, and is sometimes—but not always—able to extract valuable information from him. If he still disapproves of what has been done, he can propose to the House to pass a vote of censure on the ministers, and if a majority votes with him, and if the question is one of importance, the ministry resigns office or dissolves Parliament. In the House of Lords also any member can propose to censure the ministry, but it is understood that if the vote be adverse, the ministry, if it is supported by the House of Commons, is not bound to resign. The result of this understanding is that whilst nothing can become law which is not accepted by both Houses, and both Houses can discuss all matters of public interest, a ministry is made or unmade according to the will of the House of Commons only.

ad-min-is-tra'-tion : carrying on the government.

af-firm'-a-tive : agreeing to; the opposite of negative.

cen'-sure : blame.

cir'-cu-la-ted : spread among.

con-dol'-ence : grieving with or

sympathising with another in times of grief.

con-stit'-u-en-cy : a body of people by whom a member of Parliament is elected.

con-sult-a'-tion : talking together over a matter.

dis-cuss'-ed: talked over.

dis-ap-proves': does not like; does not agree with.

lay: not in holy orders.

pol'-i-cy: the line of conduct or

action to be carried out.

re-signs': gives up.

un-nec-ess-ar'-i-ly: needlessly; wastefully.

CHAPTER LV.

THE PRESENT CONSTITUTION (*continued*).

1. The House of Commons and the Constituencies.—If the House of Commons disapproves of the conduct of the ministry, the Prime Minister may, if he thinks fit, recommend the sovereign to dissolve Parliament. A new House of Commons is then chosen by the constituencies. Candidates do their best to convince the voters either that the conduct of the ministry has been right or that it has been wrong, and when each constituency has heard what they have to say, it chooses amongst them the member who is to represent it in the new Parliament. If the ministry finds that the greater number of members chosen are its opponents, it resigns office; if they are favourable to it, it remains in power.

2. Appointment of a New Ministry.—If the ministry resigns, the sovereign then sends for the person who has been at the head of the opponents of the old ministry to be the Prime Minister in the new one. Whoever is thus summoned then selects such amongst his own followers as he regards most capable of filling the vacant posts, and when he has completed his task, those whom he has chosen receive their appointments from the sovereign, and the new ministry thus formed retains office as long as they retain the approbation of the House of Commons.

3. Majorities and Minorities.—In the House of Commons itself every question is decided by voting, and the decision of the majority, even if it be only a majority of a single vote, is considered to be the decision of the House. A majority, however, which tried to have its own way in everything, and which never even tried to take account of the wishes and feelings of the minority, would not remain in power long. However much the members may differ from one another they are all fellow-countrymen, and must, as much as possible, work together. If they forget this, and if one party attempts to treat the other with disdain, as if its speakers were not even worthy to be listened to, the constituencies would become dissatisfied, and would sooner or later refuse, when Parliament was dissolved, to vote for those who had misbehaved themselves.

4. Individual Liberty.—It is not only in Parliament that it is desirable that a Government should not have everything its own way. If it is always interfering with private individuals and trying to make them act and live as the Government thinks best, it will probably prevent some things being done badly, but it will also prevent more things being done well. Englishmen have therefore been always very jealous of Government interference with private action, because it is a good thing that people should throw themselves heart and soul into any scheme in which they take an interest, and because they are far more likely to do this if they are allowed to form their own plans for themselves and personally to watch over their development.

5. Municipal Government.—For the same reason it is

a good thing that each town and each district should have a body of persons elected by those who live in it to manage its affairs. The things which relate to the whole country, such as the Post Office and the Telegraphs, are managed best by the government of the whole country, because letters and telegrams are sent from one end of it to the other, and it would be very awkward if they could be stopped on the way because the town or county in which they arrived had not made arrangements for sending them on. But it would be very unfortunate if the government had to consider what streets had to be made or what tram-lines were to be laid down in Liverpool or Exeter, because the people in Liverpool and Exeter know better what their wants are than the best government in London can possibly do. At present there are municipal governments, known as Corporations, elected in all large towns, and though the country districts are still managed by magistrates appointed by the Crown, the magistrates are always persons residing in the district.

6. England and the Colonies. — Besides our fellow-countrymen in these islands there are also some millions of our fellow-countrymen in the various colonies. Some of these are members of great states, such as the Dominion of Canada, the South African Colonies, and the Colonies of Australia and New Zealand. Each colony manages its own affairs through its own Parliament ; but though there is no desire amongst them to place themselves under English control there is a strong and hearty affection between the mother-country and its children beyond the sea. If a time of danger arrives this feeling

will probably lead to co-operation for common purposes of defence, and perhaps to as close a tie as is possible for those whose dwellings are separated by so great a distance. Whatever may be the result it is not enough for us to rejoice that so large a portion of the globe is occupied by men of English birth. It remains for us to prove that we are worthy of those who went before us, and that we can live so that the whole world may be better by our example. We have inherited from our ancestors a great trust, and it is for us to hand it down unimpaired to our descendants.

ap-pro-ba'-tion: favour; goodwill.

can'-di-date: one who offers himself for any office or honour.

co-op-er-a'-tion: joining or banding together to carry out a particular purpose; mutual help.

de-vel'-op-ment: a gradual growth.

dis-sat'-is-fied: displeased with.

dis-solve': to set free; when Parliament is dissolved a new House has to be elected.

ma-jor'-i-ty: the greater number.

mi-nor'-i-ty: the smaller number.

mu-ni'-cip-al: belonging to a city town, or corporation.

op-pon'-ents: those who are opposed to or disagree with.

re-pre-sent': stand in the place of.

re-signs': gives up place or office.

un-im-pair'-ed: unbroken; unsullied; unchanged.

va'-cant: empty.

BRIEF OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

1. ANCIENT BRITONS.

Lived in small tribes under chiefs or kings. Could not read. Kept cattle, hunted, fished. Made baskets and pottery. Grew barley, &c. in S.E. Mined for tin in Cornwall. Less civilised in centre and north, and only partially clothed in skins.

Religion.—Heathen; called *Druidism*. Priests called *Druids*. Worshipped Sun, Moon, &c. Oak and mistletoe sacred.

British Remains. Cromlechs. Pottery, coins, &c. found in tombs. Temples (supposed), as Stonehenge.

2. ROMANS.

First arrival, under Julius Cæsar, B.C. 55. Under Aulus Plautius, A.D. 43, conquered South Britain. Built towns (Chester, Bath, &c.) Made roads (*strata* or *streets*: hence names Stratton, Stratford, &c.) Formed camps (*castra*: hence names Lancaster, Chester, &c.) Did not destroy Britons, but improved their laws, houses, agriculture, mining, &c. Introduced Christianity. Kept peace.

Roman soldiers withdrawn, 410. South Britain invaded by *Picts* from north of Clyde, and *Scots* from Ireland.

3. THE ENGLISH.

Came from about the Elbe in Germany; were of three tribes,—*Angles*, *Saxons*, and *Jutes*; spoke Low German (much like Dutch); were hardy pirates.

Religion.—Heathen; taught them to be brave, not merciful. Worshipped *Woden* (war god); *Thor* (storm god); *Frea* (goddess of fruitfulness) &c. [Wednesday is *Woden's-day*; Thursday, *Thor's-day*; Friday, *Frea's-day*.]

English Conquest.—Some *Jutes* said to have been under Hengist and Horsa landed in Thanet about 449, and formed Kingdom of Kent. Later some *Saxons* founded Kingdoms of Sussex (S. Saxons), Wessex (W. Saxons), Essex (E. Saxons) and Middlesex (Middle Saxons).

Angles founded Northumbria (N. of Humber), East Anglia (Norfolk, Suffolk, &c.), and Mercia (midland counties).

The English, when they first landed, slew or drove out the Britons; afterwards, further west, they kept them to till the ground. By year 600, they had conquered all to the E. of Pennine and Mendip Hills.

Social Life.—Two grades in society, besides slaves—*eorls* and *ceorls* or *freemen*; each family in separate homestead. The tribesmen met to judge criminals, and to make war and peace. Soon after their arrival in England, the tribes had Kings at their head, to lead in battle and preside over the assembly of the tribe.

Treatment of Criminals.—At some early time whilst the English were in Germany, murder was avenged by relative of murdered person; afterwards (to avoid blood-feuds) compensation was made in money. Personal injury, robbery, &c. were compensated by family to family. Accused persons were condemned or acquitted by oath of family or neighbours (*compurgation*); or, if they failed to get compurgators, they were tried by *ordeal* (walking blindfold over red-hot ploughshares; dipping hand in boiling water).

Conversion of English.—Augustine came from Rome by order of Pope Gregory, 597. Converted *Ethelbert*, King of Kent; founded church at Canterbury, and was made archbishop. Christianity spread over south from Canterbury. North converted by *Paulinus* from Canterbury, and *Aidan*, who came from Iona and settled in Holy Island.

4. UNION OF ENGLAND.

The kings of the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons often quarrelled and fought with each other; the weaker conquered by the stronger. *Egbert* of Wessex conquered the others, and became overlord of England, 827. Some of the conquered states still had kings and laws of their own; but they were not allowed to fight with each other.

Danish Invasions.—Danes (or Northmen) from Denmark and Norway began to plunder east coast, and to form settlements; this led to constant fighting and partial return of barbarism. *Alfred*, grandson of *Egbert*, for a time driven from his throne, took refuge in Athelney; defeated Danes at Ethandun, and by *Treaty of Wedmore* [878] gave them land to north-east of line from London to Chester. [-*by* in names of places indicates Danish settlements—as *Grimsby*, *Kirby*.]

Alfred's Government.—Having made peace with the Danes, he tried to improve his country:—1. Formed a navy. 2. Translated books and brought in foreign scholars to instruct his people. 3. Collected and improved the laws. 4. Encouraged foreign trade.

Submission of Danes.—Kings after Alfred (Edward, Athelstan, Edmund, Edred), gradually won the north from the Danes. *England re-united* and at peace, 954.

Edgar 'The Peaceful,' committed government to **Dunstan**, Archbishop of Canterbury, who kept peace between Danes and English, and allowed each their own laws; loved books, music, &c.; promoted education; supported the monks.

Ethelred 'The Unready,' arrival of fresh Danes; king bribed instead of fighting them,—*Danegeld*; arrival of *Swegen*; Wessex overrun; London captured by Canute; flight of Ethelred to Normandy; **Edmund** 'Ironsides' forced Canute to give up south-eastern half of kingdom; death of Edmund, and election of Canute, 1016.

Canute allowed English their own laws; kept peace between them and Danes; was gentle and just; succeeded by his sons, who were brutal men and bad kings. On their death, Danes and English elected Edward, son of Ethelred, 1042.

5. THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

The Normans, of same race as Danes; part of France about Seine seized by *Rollo* in 912; called Normandy; Normans learnt to speak French; dukes did *homage* to French king; more civilised than English; land divided among lords who did homage to duke; *lords had absolute power over peasants*.

Serfdom in England.—Since time of Alfred some English freemen had become serfs, or villeins, but they were protected from ill-treatment; if accused, might bring compurgators.

Edward 'The Confessor,' more Norman than English; filled offices with Normans; French spoken at court; English angry, rose under *Godwin*, earl of Wessex, and drove out Normans. On Godwin's death his son, Harold, ruled in Edward's name; after Edward's death Harold was elected king, 1066.

Invasions.—*Harold Hardrada*, a Norwegian king, invaded north of England, was defeated and slain at Stamford Bridge.

William, duke of Normandy, claimed throne, landed at Pevensey, defeated and slew Harold at Senlac, near Hastings, and was crowned king, 1066.

6. THE NORMANS.

William I., 1066–1087.

William II., 1087–1100.

Henry I., 1100–1135.

Stephen, 1135–1154.

WILLIAM I. 'The Conqueror' (1066); loved order; made all obey him; harsh and cruel if opposed; treated English who opposed him as rebels; gave their lands to Normans; Normans supported

him through fear of English,—English through fear of Norman barons; William allowed none to have much land in one county; built castles in towns; allowed none to rob or murder.

Feudal System.—The land *belonged to king*, was divided among vassals on condition of military service; barons and tenants did homage for lands.

Doomsday Book gave list of landowners, account of lands, and payments or service due to king.

William's Cruelty.—Laid waste Vale of York to protect southern England from Danes and Scots; destroyed houses in New Forest, Hants, to fit it for hunting purposes.

WILLIAM II. '*The Red*' (1087), second son of William I.; able and energetic, but unjust and cruel; English, in fear of barons, supported him. Kept sees vacant, and collected revenues; during illness, made Anselm archbishop; Anselm opposed king and was banished; king killed in New Forest.

HENRY I. '*The Scholar*' (1100); third son of William I.; brought up as an *English* prince, married an *English* wife, depended on *English* support against his elder brother Robert. Kept barons down; took Normandy from Robert. Ruled justly but sternly; taxed heavily. Died 1135.

STEPHEN, son of Adela, daughter of William I. (1135); chosen in preference to Matilda, daughter of Henry I.; well-disposed, but weak; crown claimed by Matilda; civil war and anarchy; barons built castles, and oppressed people; tortured and imprisoned them to extort money; starved thousands.

7-9. ANGEVIN OR PLANTAGENET KINGS.

Henry II., 1154-1189.
Richard I., 1189-1199.
John, 1199-1216.
Henry III., 1216-1272.

Edward I., 1272-1307.
Edward II., 1307-1327.
Edward III., 1327-1377.
Richard II., 1377-1399.

7.

HENRY II., son of Matilda, first king of *Angevin* or *Plantagenet* line (1154); strong and energetic; introduced *reforms*; pulled down castles and restored order; substituted money payment for military service; allowed small land-owners to carry arms. Established regular *assizes* and *juries*.

Quarrel with Church.—Criminal clergymen were tried by church courts and not properly punished. Henry wanted to have them tried in civil courts; Archbishop Becket opposed this; was accused of embezzlement; fled to France; allowed to return, again offended Henry; murdered by four knights; this led to a rebellion; Henry

230 HISTORY OF ENGLAND TREATED POLITICALLY

did penance, satisfying the people; and gave up his claims over the clergy.

Conquest of Ireland begun. By inheritance and marriage Henry ruled all the west of France. Succeeded by his son Richard, 1189.

RICHARD I. (1189), bold and daring; a good soldier; a bad king; quarrelsome and overbearing to his equals.

Crusades.—*Wars of the Cross*; undertaken to wrest Jerusalem from Turks; began in time of William II. (1096), through preaching of *Peter the Hermit*. Jerusalem captured by 1st crusade; retaken by Turks in time of Henry II. Richard joined King of France and Duke of Austria in 3rd crusade, but quarrelled with both of them; defeated Turks, but failed to take Jerusalem. Taken prisoner in Austria; surrendered to Emperor Henry VI.; ransomed by English. Killed during an attack on a castle in his own dominions in France, 1199.

JOHN chosen king in preference to an elder brother's son—*Arthur*; John was wicked, selfish, mean, cruel, deceitful. Imprisoned and murdered Arthur; called to account by Philip, King of France, he refused to attend; Philip seized his French lands north of the Loire.

Quarrel with Pope.—Against John's wishes, pope made Stephen Langton Archbishop of Canterbury; John refused to admit him; pope laid England under an *Interdict* (church bells silent, dead unburied); then excommunicated and deposed John; as the French were about to invade England and the English were turning against him, John submitted, and held his kingdom under the Pope.

Magna Carta.—Langton became champion of English liberties; was supported by barons; drew up a charter of liberties, and compelled John to sign it, 1215. *Its main provisions* were (1) Free and prompt justice to all; (2) Security of person and property against illegal seizure; (3) Control of taxation by the Great Council of all the King's tenants in chief [except for three *aids*, namely,—at knighting of king's eldest son, marriage of his eldest daughter, or for ransom of king's person].

Death of King.—John then got pope to annul charter, and hired mercenaries to make war on his subjects; they called in Louis, son of King of France, to help; but just then John died, 1216.

8

HENRY III.—Eldest son of John, 1216; nine years old; Earl of Pembroke regent. Henry was mild but weak and extravagant; broke his promises; promoted foreigners. Great Council began to be called '*Parliament*'; consisted at beginning of reign of barons,

bishops, and abbots,—*no Commons*. King's extravagance &c. provoked barons to resist. *Simon de Montfort*, king's brother-in-law, their leader. *Provisions of Oxford* placed supreme power in hands of Councils; barons jealous of Earl Simon; great towns supported him; battle of Lewes (1264). Capture of king and prince Edward; Simon ruler. *Origin of Commons*.—Earl Simon summoned to parliament two knights for each county (as had occasionally been done earlier in the reign), and two representatives for each borough; increased jealousy of barons; escape of Prince Edward, battle of Evesham (1265) and death of Simon; king restored; his death, 1272.

EDWARD I. (1272), a strong and wise ruler, a great law-giver; controlled barons; gave offices to Englishmen. In 1295 summoned the first complete parliament, that of Simon not having been summoned by a king.

Tried to bring all Britain under his government; conquered and annexed Wales; was acknowledged Lord-paramount of Scotland, and made umpire to settle rival claims to crown; declared for John Balliol; required that Scotch law appeals should be heard before him; Scots rebelled and were defeated; Balliol deposed; insurrection under Wallace, expulsion of English; Edward invaded Scotland, defeated Wallace; Wallace betrayed and executed. Rebellion under Robert Bruce, defeat of Scots; Edward started for Scotland, but died at Burgh-on-Sands, near Carlisle, 1307.

EDWARD II. (1307), son of Edward I.; weak, frivolous, devoted to pleasure, left government to favourites.

Scotch War continued by Bruce, while king quarrelled with barons; English driven out of all Scotland except Stirling Castle; king invaded Scotland, defeated at *Bannockburn*, 1314. Independence of Scotland.

Insurrection of Barons; Piers Gaveston (king's favourite) beheaded; king's wife joins barons; king deposed and murdered.

9.

EDWARD III., eldest son of Edward II. (1327).

Hundred Years' War.—King of France wanted Gascony from English; interfered in Scotch wars; English feared he would stop their wool trade with Flanders. Edward declared war, and claimed French crown, on ground that his mother was sister of late king, whilst present king (Philip VI.) was late king's cousin. French said no man could rule by right of his mother. Battles of Sluys (Flanders, now part of Belgium), Crecy (1346). Siege of Calais; Battle of Poitiers (1356), King John (son of Philip) taken prisoner.

Peace of Bretigny.—Edward renounced claim to French throne, but held large districts in France and was to receive large sums of money.

The Labourers.—Two kinds, both harshly treated :—

(1) *Villeins* (or serfs), who paid for the land which they cultivated for themselves, by working for a lord without wages, and were bound to the soil (could not leave their lord).

(2) *Free Labourers*, who worked for wages and were not bound to the soil. Wages were very low.

The Black Death.—Half the people perished ; great demand for labour ; labourers asked more wages ; landlords reduced free labourers to villeinage, and passed *Statute of Labourers*, making demand for higher wages illegal ; insurrection of labourers under John Ball.

New war with France, loss of French possessions. Death of king, 1377.

RICHARD II. (1377), succeeded his grandfather, Edward III., his father, the *Black Prince*, being dead.

Peasants' Revolt.—French war went on unsuccessfully, cost much money, involved new taxation, increased discontent of labourers ; insurrection under Wat Tyler, for purpose of putting down new taxes and villeinage ; king at first promised them redress ; some of them, not satisfied, committed murders &c. ; king met them at Smithfield ; Tyler killed, rebels dispersed on promise of freedom ; thousands of them were hanged, and the rest kept in bondage.

John Wyclif, a learned priest, argued against authority of pope in England, and against the luxury and laziness of clergy ; he translated the Bible into English and wrote many tracts ; his followers called *Lollards*. He died at Lutterworth, in Leicestershire.

King absolute ; killed his uncle Gloucester and other nobles ; banished his cousin Henry, Duke of Hereford (son of John of Gaunt), and the Duke of Norfolk ; when John of Gaunt, the Duke of Lancaster, died, he seized his estates. Hereford, now Duke of Lancaster, returned to demand his estates, was welcomed by the nobles ; Richard was dethroned, and Hereford (Bolingbroke) made king as Henry IV., 1399.

10. THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV., 1399–1413.
Henry V., 1413–1422.

Henry VI., 1422–1461.

HENRY IV. (1399), first king of House of Lancaster, his title

founded on Act of Parliament; he therefore had to submit to Parliament.

Burning of Lollards.—Nobles feared Lollards because they favoured freedom of serfs; tried to put them down, passed a law ordering them to be burnt,—first such law in England.

Rebellion.—Nobles who placed Henry on throne were dissatisfied with him; the Welsh, under Glendower, wanted independence. Percy, Earl of Northumberland, made league with Scots and Welsh to rise against king; rebels defeated at Shrewsbury. Other rebellions followed, Henry died a worn-out man in 1413.

HENRY V. (1413), son of Henry IV., succeeded. Strong and brave. French King, Charles VI., mad. Henry V. revived claim of Edward III. and made war on France. Captured Harfleur; totally routed French at Agincourt, 1415; conquered Normandy; the Burgundians joined Henry in revenge for murder of their duke by a Frenchman in the presence of the eldest son of the King of France. **Treaty of Troyes**,—Henry to be regent of France at once; to marry Catherine, Charles's daughter; and to be king when Charles VI. died. Henry's death, 1422.

HENRY VI. (1422), infant son of Henry V., succeeded. Gentle, pious, without strength or wisdom. His uncle, the Duke of Bedford, regent in France; conquest continued, Orleans besieged; siege raised by *Joan Darc*; Charles VII. crowned at Rheims; Joan captured and burnt; English driven out of France, Calais excepted; great discontent in England; Duke of Suffolk (king's minister) murdered; insurrection in Kent under Jack Cade, Cade executed; king mad; Duke of York regent; York displaced by king.

Wars of Roses.—Civil war; the Duke of York claimed crown; York defeated and killed at Wakefield; his son Edward defeated royalists at Towton, and became Edward IV. 1461.

11. HOUSE OF YORK.

Edward IV., 1461–1483.

Edward V., 1483.

Richard III., 1483–1485.

EDWARD IV. (1461), first king of House of York; a brave, able soldier; but too fond of pleasure. Wars of the Roses weakened the barons and strengthened the king, so that he was able to protect the farmers, labourers, and shopkeepers from the barons; more popular with middle and lower classes than with barons; king offended Warwick, the *Kingmaker*, the most powerful of barons; who restored **Henry VI.**; Edward fled to Flanders; returned with an army, defeated and slew Warwick at Barnet; overcame Margaret at Tewkesbury (1471); sent Henry VI. to the Tower, where he was murdered.

Benevolences.—Edward ruled almost without parliament; got money by confiscating estates of those who had fought against him, and by requiring rich men to give him *benevolences*.

Printing.—William Caxton set up a printing-press in Westminster, 1476.

EDWARD V. succeeded his father in 1483; his uncle, Richard Duke of Gloucester, made protector; Richard put to death Lord Rivers (king's mother's brother) and Lord Hastings (minister to Edward IV.); sent king and his brother to Tower; got parliament to set them aside and make him king; then had the princes murdered.

RICHARD III., 1483; brave and warlike, but cruel; slightly deformed; his cruelty made him unpopular; Duke of Buckingham (who had helped him to throne) formed plot to place Henry Earl of Richmond on the throne (see Genealogical Table); plot defeated and Buckingham executed. Richmond made a second attempt, landed at Milford Haven; defeated and slew Richard at Bosworth in Leicestershire, 1485. Richmond crowned on the field as Henry VII. It was arranged that he should marry Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. This 'Union of the Roses' put an end to the civil war.

12. HOUSE OF TUDOR.

HENRY VII. (1485–1509); cold and reserved, unpopular. A strong ruler who gave peace and security; a lover of money and power. Strengthened claim to throne by marrying Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.

Insurrections.—(1) *Lambert Simnel*, a baker, professed to be Earl of Warwick, son of Duke of Clarence. Supported by Irish; landed in Lancashire; defeated at Stoke, taken prisoner and made royal scullion. (2) *Perkin Warbeck* pretended to be Richard Duke of York, son of Edward IV., was captured and executed.

King and Nobles.—Power of nobles greatly reduced and that of king increased (a) by king's possession of artillery, (b) by his enforcement of Statute of Liveries (Edward IV.), (c) by his setting up Court of Star Chamber.

King amassed wealth by reviving benevolences, inflicting fines, levying heavy taxes on the rich, and being very economical. *Discovery of America*, 1492.

HENRY VIII. (1509–1547), son of Henry VII. Strong, active, self-willed; frank, jovial, and popular.

Condition of People.—Some scholars had begun to study Greek

and Latin authors; *printing* had greatly multiplied books. Lower classes no longer serfs, but badly treated; much arable land turned into pasture; many farm labourers thrown out of work; they and discharged soldiers had no resources but begging and stealing; convicted thieves were hanged.

Reformation begun by Luther in Germany; his followers called 'protestants.' King quarrelled with pope about divorce of Queen Catherine; fall of Wolsey.

13. REFORMATION IN ENGLAND.

King's divorce pronounced by Cranmer; marriage with Anne Boleyn; *Statute of Appeals*, forbidding appeals to Rome; *Act of Supremacy*, declaring king supreme head of church; king burnt protestants as heretics, and hanged or beheaded catholics as traitors; execution of More as traitor, because he refused to acknowledge lawfulness of king's second marriage.

Translation of Bible: Thomas Cromwell minister; suppression of smaller monasteries, and waste of their means. **Pilgrimage of Grace** in northern counties; destruction of images; dissolution of larger monasteries; new cathedrals.

Fall of Cromwell; Cromwell lost the King's favour and was executed by Act of Parliament.

Statute of Six Articles,—ordering death of those who publicly denied the six leading catholic doctrines assailed by protestants. [1. transubstantiation; 2. communion in one kind (bread, but not wine); 3. celibacy of clergy; 4. perpetual obligation of vows of chastity; 5. private masses; 6. auricular confession.]

Translation of Lord's Prayer, Creed, &c. Mass still said in Latin. Death of king, 1547.

Wives of Henry VIII.	Children	Fate of wife
1. Catherine of Arragon . . .	Mary . . .	Divorced
2. Anne Boleyn . . .	Elizabeth . . .	Beheaded
3. Jane Seymour . . .	Edward . . .	Died naturally
4. Anne of Cleves . . .	None . . .	Divorced
5. Catherine Howard . . .	„ . . .	Beheaded
6. Catherine Parr . . .	„ . . .	Outlived Henry

EDWARD VI. (1547–1553), only a boy; Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, king's uncle, made protector; war with Scotland to compel Mary Queen of Scots to marry Edward; battle of Pinkie; Mary sent to France.

Reformation continued; remaining images destroyed; new Prayer Book in English; rebellion in Devon. Seizure of church property; building of Somerset House.

Somerset's fall; Ket's rebellion in Norfolk against inclosures; put down by Dudley, Earl of Warwick, who then took protectorate from Somerset, charged him with treason, and executed him. Warwick made Duke of Northumberland and Head of Government; issued a second and more protestant Prayer Book; persuaded king to leave crown to Lady Jane Grey, king's cousin; death of king.

MARY (1558-1558), daughter of Henry VIII., acknowledged queen by people; Lady Jane imprisoned, Northumberland beheaded. English Prayer Book suppressed; queen's marriage with Philip of Spain; Sir Thomas Wyatt and the men of Kent rose in rebellion to prevent Mary from marrying Philip; Wyatt was taken and executed; Lady Jane beheaded; pope's authority restored; protestants burned,—Rowland Taylor, Ridley, Latimer, Cranmer, and others. War with France; loss of Calais. Death of Mary, 1558.

14. ELIZABETH'S REIGN.

ELIZABETH (1558-1603), daughter of Anne Boleyn, and a protestant; second Prayer Book of Edward VI. restored; Catholic bishops deprived; uniformity of worship commanded, according to rites of Church of England.

Mary Queen of Scots.—Scotch were protestants, Mary was a Catholic; claimed crown of England; being a great-granddaughter of Henry VII., and Elizabeth having been declared by Henry VIII. illegitimate, many (especially Catholics) thought Mary lawful Queen of England; murder of Darnley her husband; rebellion of Scotch; Mary's flight to England and imprisonment; rising in the north; plot to assassinate Elizabeth and put Mary on the throne; Norfolk executed.

National Prosperity made Elizabeth popular; increase of trade; improvement of manufactures; better food; more comfortable houses; *First Poor Law*.

Hatred of Spain, the champion of Catholicism; contraband trade of English in West Indies; seizure of Spanish ships. **Maritime discoveries**; Drake's voyage round the world, plundering Spaniards at Valparaiso &c.; 'North-West Passage' sought,—Frobisher, Davis, Gilbert.

ELIZABETH'S TRIUMPHS.

Catholic Missions.—Increase of protestants; pope had declared Elizabeth a usurper; Roman missionaries tried to reconvert

English; Elizabeth afraid; fierce laws against missionaries; Throgmorton's plot to murder Elizabeth and put Mary on throne defeated; the 'Association.' Troops sent to help Dutch against Philip; death of Sydney; Drake plundered Spanish West Indies. The Babington plot and execution of Mary Queen of Scots.

The Invincible Armada, 1588.—Philip determined to invade and conquer England; Catholics united with Protestants to defend country; Philip's store ships destroyed by Drake at Cadiz. Spanish army in Flanders ready to embark; Fleet attacked in English Channel and driven up North Sea; most of the ships wrecked. English commanded by Lord Howard of Effingham, assisted by Drake, &c.

LAST YEARS OF ELIZABETH.

War with Spain continued; Spanish ships and towns plundered; death of Drake in West Indies; Spanish fleet destroyed in Cadiz harbour by Howard and Essex.

Conquest of Ireland.—Irish lands confiscated and given to English; rebellion under Tyrone; Essex failed to put it down, and was executed for treason; Lord Mountjoy subdued Ireland.

The Monopolies.—Queen conferred on her favourites sole right of selling certain articles; people angry; House of Commons interposed, and queen cancelled monopolies. Elizabeth died, 1603. 'She round England divided and weak; she left it united and strong.'

15. THE STUARTS.

James I., 1603–1625.		Charles I., 1625–1649.
----------------------	--	------------------------

[<i>The Commonwealth</i> and		<i>Protectorate</i> , 1649–1660.]
-------------------------------	--	-----------------------------------

Charles II., 1660–1685.		James II., 1685–1688.
-------------------------	--	-----------------------

JAMES I. (1603–1625), son of Mary Queen of Scots, was James VI. of Scotland, and united thrones of England and Scotland.

Hampton Court Conference.—Puritans wanted revision of Prayer Book, permission not to use surplices, the sign of cross in baptism, and the ring in marriage. Nothing came of conference but revised translation of Bible.

Gunpowder Plot, 1605.—Catholics were severely treated, and James refused all concessions to them; some of them, headed by Catesby, decided to blow up king and parliament; plot discovered, conspirators executed.

Colonisation of Ulster.—After conquest of Ireland by Elizabeth, many chiefs were jealous of English influence; the Earl of Tyrone refused to submit and fled to Spain; his estates confiscated, and given to English and Scotch settlers,—the Irish owners being

turned adrift; this increased Irish discontent, and involved additional expense to keep order; James quarrelled with the Commons about raising the money.

James's Favourites.—1. **Robert Carr.**—A Scotchman; created Earl of Somerset. He and his wife were convicted of the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury.

2. **George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham.**—James made him very rich, and gave him more authority than any other person in the kingdom.

Spanish Marriage Treaty.—James wanted to marry his son Charles to Maria, daughter of Philip III. of Spain, expecting a large dowry. English opposed to it as Philip was a Catholic, and the Armada was not forgotten. Prince Charles and Buckingham went to Madrid to see the Infanta; but the treaty was broken off, to the joy of the English.

Raleigh's Voyage.—Raleigh had been committed to the Tower. He was set free to obtain for James a sum of gold from a mine near the Orinoco in South America. Failing to discover the mine his men attacked the Spaniards, against which James had cautioned him. He returned, and was executed on the former charge.

Monopolies.—King revived monopolies; Commons complained, and king cancelled them.

Lord Chancellor **Bacon** impeached for corruption and sentenced to loss of office, fine and imprisonment.

Marriage of Charles.—King married his son Charles to Henrietta Maria, sister of King of France, secretly undertaking to grant freedom of worship to Catholics, though he had promised Parliament he would not.

16. REIGN OF CHARLES I.

CHARLES I. (1625–1649), son of James I., still under influence of Buckingham.

His First Parliament.—Charles summoned parliament and asked for money to carry on a war with Spain. The Commons granted only a small amount, and refused more as long as Charles retained Buckingham for his chief adviser. Charles was angry and dissolved parliament.

Unsuccessful expedition to Cadiz.

The Second Parliament.—Buckingham impeached. Charles dissolved parliament before the trial was concluded.

Forced Loans.—Not able to obtain money from Parliament, Charles ordered all persons with property to grant him money as a forced loan.

Buckingham, sent with an army to help the Protestants of La Rochelle, was unsuccessful.

The Third Parliament before granting money required Charles to agree to the **Petition of Right**, which provided that:—(1) Neither taxes nor forced loans should be levied without consent of Parliament; (2) No man should be detained in prison without the cause being shown, so that he might apply to a judge to be tried or bailed; (3) Soldiers should not be billeted upon private persons; (4) No martial law to be executed. Charles consenting, received a grant and fitted out an expedition to relieve Rochelle. Buckingham murdered by John Felton.

King's Disputes with Parliament.—(1) With Puritan members about teaching certain doctrines. (2) About 'tonnage' and 'poundage,' i.e. payment of duties on goods exported and imported.

Charles dissolved Parliament 1629, and did not call another for eleven years.

Imprisonment of Members.—King imprisoned Eliot and other members who had opposed him. Eliot died in prison.

Laud and the Church.—William Laud made Bishop of London, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. (1) Compelled clergy to read the whole of the Prayer Book service. (2) Removed communion table to east end of churches. (3) Brought disobedient clergy before the High Commission Court established by Elizabeth, and deprived them of their benefices.

Court of Star Chamber (Hen. VII.) used by king to punish those who complained violently of his government; no jury; court consisted of two judges and king's council,—both accusers and judges.

Ship Money.—(1) Charles wanted to build fleet; ordered seaports to send him ships, or money instead. (2) He ordered all the counties to do the same. **John Hampden**, a Buckinghamshire squire, refused to pay; judges decided against Hampden.

Scottish Prayer Book.—(1) King had a new Prayer Book compiled, and ordered it to be read in Scotch churches. (2) The people resisted; drew up the 'National Covenant,' binding themselves to stand up for their religion. (3) Charles marched an army to Scotland, but for want of money was obliged to agree to a peace.

The Short Parliament assembled. Charles dissolved it because it would not grant him money to fight the Scotch. Having obtained some money by transactions in pepper, Charles marched to York; Scots invaded England and defeated part of king's army; King promised them money and summoned Parliament to grant it.

Long Parliament (Nov. 1640), released men imprisoned by Star

Chamber; Strafford and Laud sent to Tower, impeached and executed for treason; to levy ship-money &c. without consent of Parliament declared illegal; Courts of High Commission and Star Chamber abolished. Division in the House as to Church matters,—Pym and Hampden wanted change in Prayer Book &c.; Hyde and Falkland opposed it.

Rebellion in Ireland.—Irish of Ulster drove out English and Scottish colonists established by James and killed many of them. An army was sent over which treated the Irish very badly.

Grand Remonstrance, drawn up by the Commons, demanding—(1) That ministers should not be appointed unless approved of by Parliament; (2) That a number of clergymen should be named by Parliament to consider alterations to be made in the Prayer Book. Charles resisted, and marched to the House with 400 armed men to seize five members whom he accused as traitors; but they escaped him.

17. THE GREAT REBELLION.

The Commons now thought Charles meant to attack them with soldiers, and demanded the appointment of the officers; Charles refused, and collected an army at Nottingham; ‘Cavaliers’ and ‘Roundheads.’

Battles and Results.—*Edgehill*—indecisive; the king entered Oxford and wintered there.

Chalgrove Field—Hampden mortally wounded.

Newbury—Falkland killed. The Scots, invited by Parliament, entered England 1644.

Marston Moor—Cromwell gained great victory.

Self-denying Ordinance, passed by Parliament, ordered every member of Parliament to resign his post as officer in the army.

The Parliamentary army was remodelled. **Fairfax** appointed General, **Cromwell** Lieutenant-General.

Battle of Naseby. Fairfax defeated king, who surrendered to Scots, and was delivered up to the Parliamentarians. End of the first war.

Quarrel between the army and Parliament about pay and the freedom of worship. The army seized the king and placed him in Hampton Court. He afterwards escaped to the Isle of Wight, was captured, and lodged in Carisbrooke Castle.

Second Civil War.—Insurrections in favour of Charles broke out in Wales, Kent, and Essex; quelled by Fairfax and Cromwell. Scotch army invaded England in behalf of the king; defeated by Cromwell at Preston.

The army determined to bring Charles to trial, and to effect

this, cleared the House of ninety unfavourable members; the remainder called the 'Rump.'

Charles was tried by a High Court of Justice appointed by the Rump Parliament, condemned, and executed Jan. 1649.

18. THE COMMONWEALTH (1649).

No king, no House of Lords; only 80 members in Commons; country governed by a Council of State chosen by the Commons.

Ireland in anarchy; Cromwell sent to restore order; his severity; he storms Drogheda and captures Wexford.

Scotland.—Prince Charles crowned by Scots; Cromwell defeats Scots at Dunbar and at Worcester,—*'a crowning mercy.'*

Expulsion of Long Parliament.—Cromwell expelled remnant of Long Parliament, and called another,—the **Barebones Parliament**, which gave all power to him, and declared him Lord Protector.

Cromwell's Government.—(1) He called Parliament, it was troublesome, he dissolved it, and ruled without a Parliament. (2) He allowed the Puritans to worship as they liked, but refused use of Prayer Book to members of Church of England. (3) He joined France in war against Spain, and received Dunkirk. (4) He summoned a second Parliament, which requested him to take title of King, but he refused. He consented to create a new House of Lords.

Cromwell died in 1658. **Richard Cromwell**, his eldest son, succeeded. He assembled a Parliament, but it was dissolved by the army, and the old members of the Long Parliament were recalled.

The Restoration.—George Monk marched with an English army from Scotland to London and declared for a free Parliament. The Long Parliament dissolved itself; a new Parliament was chosen which invited Charles to become king, 1660.

19. THE STUARTS. CHARLES II.

CHARLES II. (1660–1685); witty, fond of pleasure,—*'the merry monarch.'* The army disbanded, except three regiments. Body of Cromwell dug up and hanged; those who had condemned Charles I. executed.

Cavalier Parliament.—Bishops restored, and services of Church of England used in all churches.

Acts against Puritans.—(1) **Act of Uniformity**,—all clergymen to approve everything in the Prayer Book. (2) **Conventicle Act**,—forbidding meetings of more than five persons (in addition to the

household) for any worship save that of Prayer Book. (3) **Five Mile Act**,—no Nonconformist minister to come within five miles of a corporate town, or of a place where he had been a clergyman.

John Bunyan, imprisoned for nonconformity, wrote the 'Pilgrim's Progress.'

Rewards to Royalists.—*Monk* made Duke of Albemarle, and *Hyde* made Earl of Clarendon and Lord Chancellor.

First Dutch War.—Rivalry of the English and Dutch; king spent on his own pleasures money voted for the war. Peace being almost concluded at Breda, Charles dismissed the sailors. The Dutch, taking advantage of this, sailed up the Thames and burnt several English ships. A peace favourable to the Dutch was concluded at Breda.

The Cabal Ministry,—formed after the fall of Clarendon; composed of Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale; favoured toleration.

The Triple Alliance (English, Dutch, and Swedes), to prevent Louis of France from making any further conquests.

Treaty of Dover, concluded secretly between Charles and Louis XIV. of France; Charles promised (1) to join Louis against the Dutch, and (2) to declare himself a Catholic.

Charles declared war against Dutch, and issued **Declaration of Indulgence** ordering that the laws against Catholics and Dissenters should not be put into execution; Parliament was furious and he withdrew Declaration.

20. LAST YEARS OF CHARLES II.

A Test Act passed against Catholics. It required every person appointed to office, (1) to receive the Sacrament, (2) to declare his disbelief in Transubstantiation.

Result.—(1) The Cabal Ministry destroyed,—Clifford and Arlington refused to take the test. (2) Danby's Ministry formed, whose policy was 'No Toleration,' 'No support to France.' It furthered the marriage between William of Orange and the Princess Mary.

Alleged Popish Plot.—Titus Oates declared that he had discovered a Catholic plot against the king. He was believed at first, and many people were put to death, but afterwards his assertions were found to be false.

Shaftesbury tried to pass an 'Exclusion Bill,' to prevent succession of James Duke of York; king dissolved Parliament.

The Habeas Corpus Act was passed to prevent the indefinite imprisonment of persons charged with treason.

The Forfeiture of the London Charter because the grand jury acquitted Shaftesbury of a charge brought against him by the king.

The Rye House Plot, formed by some Whigs of note to murder the king. It was discovered, and Russell and Sydney, who had been agitating for another Parliament, were accused of taking part in plot and executed.

King's Last Days.—Charles had long been a pensioner on the King of France, who kept him so well supplied with money that he could do without summoning a Parliament. On his deathbed he professed himself a Roman Catholic.

JAMES II. (1685–1688), brother of Charles II.

Monmouth's Rebellion.—The Whigs in time of Charles II. had tried to pass a bill excluding James from succession, with a view to conferring crown on Duke of Monmouth, illegitimate son of Charles. Failing, they fled to Holland. They now returned headed by Monmouth, and landed at Lyme in Dorset; defeated at Sedgemoor. Monmouth executed.

Bloody Assizes.—After the rebellion, Jeffreys, a cruel judge, was sent down to the west of England to hold an assize; 820 persons put to death; 841 sold into slavery.

The Test Act.—(1) James appointed Catholic officers in the army and excused them from taking the test. Parliament remonstrated, and was dissolved. (2) James got the judges to declare he had a right to dispense with the test. (3) King then issued a **Declaration of Indulgence**, allowing Dissenters and Catholics to worship as they pleased, and to hold offices without taking the test. (4) Expulsion of the Fellows of Magdalen College for not electing a Catholic president; James ordered the Declaration to be read in all the churches. (5) Seven bishops presented a petition to James, praying him not to compel the clergy to read the Declaration. They were accused of libel, but acquitted by the jury.

Invitation to the Prince of Orange.—(1) William was invited by seven noblemen to come to England to save the laws and liberties of the nation. (2) The immediate cause of the invitation was the birth of James's son, who, the people knew, would be brought up a Catholic, and would be heir to the throne. (3) William landed at Torbay and marched towards London. James's officers deserted and joined William. The king fled to France, and was received at the court of Louis XIV., 1688. William and his wife Mary declared king and queen, 1689.

21. WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

WILLIAM AND MARY (1689-1694).—*William*, son of William, Prince of Orange, and of Mary, daughter of Charles I.; *Mary*, daughter of James II.

The Revolution.—Parliament declared that (1) James, by misgovernment and leaving the kingdom, had given up the throne. (2) Mary and William were to be joint sovereigns. (3) At death of either the survivor should reign; at death of both, unless Mary left issue, the crown should descend to Mary's sister, the Princess Anne.

Toleration Act was passed, allowing Dissenters (but not Catholics) to worship in their own chapels.

War with Scotland.—Viscount Dundee took up the cause of James in the Highlands, and defeated William's forces at Killiecrankie, but was shot himself.

Massacre of Glencoe.—William concluded a peace with Scotland; Highland chiefs to swear to live peaceably; oath to be taken by a certain day. Mac Ian, of Glencoe, was not punctual, and the chief minister of Scotland (the Master of Stair) caused his clan to be massacred.

War in Ireland.—Throughout the Commonwealth, and the reign of Charles II., the Irish had been badly treated. James II. allowed them their own way, and they drove out the English.

Siege of Londonderry (1689).—Londonderry still held by English. James besieged it; it was bravely defended by Walker, a clergyman, and after great hardships was relieved. General Kirke raised the siege.

Battle of the Boyne.—William crossed over to Ireland and defeated James, who fled to France.

The Irish again defeated at Aghrim; Limerick captured.

War with France.—Louis, King of France, wanted to invade England and restore James. The English and Dutch fleets defeated by French off Beachy Head. The French prepared to invade England; but their fleet was destroyed by Admiral Russell off La Hogue.

Liberty of the Press.—Up to this reign no book was allowed to be published until an officer, called the 'licenser,' had given his leave. Now this rule was abolished.

Death of Mary from small-pox, 1694.

22. WILLIAM III.

WILLIAM III. as sole monarch, 1694-1702.

Continuation of the War with France.—William besieged and captured Namur,—the first town lost by Louis. Peace of Ryswick. William acknowledged by Louis King of England. Dutch guards dismissed.

Assassination Plot.—Forty Jacobites plotted to assassinate William; plot discovered; some conspirators executed.

Spanish Succession.—Charles II., King of Spain, was an invalid and not likely to live long. Louis, King of France, had married Charles's eldest sister, and claimed the crown of Spain for his son. William objected to the descendants of Louis being Kings of Spain. [Spain then held great part of Italy, the Southern Netherlands and West Indies.]

Partition Treaties.—*First.* Most of the Spanish lands were to be given to a young Bavarian prince; this prince, however, soon died. *Second.* Southern Italy and Lorraine were to be given to Louis' grandson Philip; the rest, including Spain, to the Archduke Charles, the younger son of the Emperor.

Charles, dying, left his dominions to Philip. William wanted to compel Louis to carry out the Partition Treaty, but Parliament at first refused money. Louis, on the death of James II., acknowledged the Old Pretender as James III. Parliament at once granted William money and forces to carry on a war against Louis.

Act of Settlement.—(1) If William died without children, the crown to go to Anne, sister of Mary, and daughter of James II. (2) After Anne, to the Electress Sophia, the grand-daughter of James I., the next heir who was a Protestant.

Death of William, 1702.

23. REIGN OF ANNE.

ANNE (1702-1714), second daughter of James II.

War of Spanish Succession.—**Causes.**—(1) The determination of Louis to put his grandson Philip in possession of the Spanish dominions as Philip V., in violation of the Partition Treaty; and (2) his recognition of the Pretender as James III.

Armies engaged.—English, Dutch, and Germans, commanded by Duke of Marlborough, against the French and Spaniards.

Engagements.—Sir George Rooke captured Gibraltar. Marlborough totally defeated French at Blenheim in Bavaria, 1704; at Ramilies in Flanders, 1706; at Oudenarde in Flanders, 1708; and at Malplaquet in North France, 1709.

The Union with Scotland.—English Parliament had passed an

Act settling the crown on the Electress Sophia; Scotch Parliament refused to do the like; to avoid risk of separation of crowns, English offered Scotch free trade with England, and the exercise of their own laws, and the presbyterian form of worship, if they would consent to a union of Parliaments. The Act of Union passed 1707.

The Whig and Tory Ministries.—**The Whigs.**—(1) All through the reign were in favour of the 'War of Spanish Succession.' (2) After the unsuccessful trial of Sachev'ere, for preaching 'non-resistance,' the Whigs were dismissed.

The Tories were eager for peace. They made a treaty, which was signed at Utrecht. The chief Tory ministers were Harley (Earl of Oxford) and St. John (Viscount Bolingbroke).

Treaty of Utrecht.—**Terms.**—(1) France engaged to acknowledge Anne and the protestant succession. (2) Philip, grandson of Louis, retained Spain and the Spanish colonies, but the crowns of France and Spain were not to be united. (3) Spanish lands in Italy and Netherlands given to Archduke Charles, now emperor.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

24. GEORGE I. (1714-1727),

Son of Elector of Hanover, and of Sophia, grand-daughter of James I.

Events in Early Part of Reign.—The Tory Ministers were removed and the Whigs put in power.

The rebellion in favour of the Old Pretender, James Francis Edward, the son of James II. The Pretender landed in Scotland, but the rebellion was put down and he retired to the Continent.

The South Sea Bubble.—Owing to the increase of trade, people began to invest their money rashly. Many trading companies started; one of the most popular was the *South Sea Company*, formed to carry on trade with South Africa and Spanish America. People formed such exaggerated expectations of profit that 100*l.* shares were sold for 1,000*l.* After a time, the shares fell to a low price. Thousands of families were ruined. Sir Robert Walpole, the first Prime Minister of England, and a Whig, by his wise acts somewhat remedied the disaster.

Parliamentary corruption; wholesale bribery at elections and in the House.

25. REIGN OF GEORGE II.

GEORGE II. (1727-1760), son of George I.

Walpole's Administration.—(1) He attempted to put an end to smuggling by an Excise Bill; but it was rejected. (2) Against his

own judgment he was led to declare war against Spain to avenge the ill-treatment of British smugglers and prevent the searching of English vessels by Spaniards. (3) Defeat of English, and resignation of Walpole.

Broad-Bottomed Ministry formed by Henry Pelham (Prime Minister) and his brother the Duke of Newcastle.

Rebellion under Young Pretender, Charles Edward, son of James Francis, the Old Pretender, and grandson of James II. He landed in Scotland; was joined by the Highlanders; marched to Edinburgh; obtained many followers, and defeated the Royal forces at Preston Pans. He then invaded England; marched to Derby; but found little support and was obliged to retreat. At Falkirk, near Stirling, he defeated the Royal forces under General Hawley; but was routed at Culloden (1746), in Inverness, by the Duke of Cumberland. Charles escaped to the Continent; lived a dissipated life.

Spread of the English.—Thirteen colonies along Atlantic coast of N. America; collisions with French of Lower Canada.

Seven Years' War.—Loss of Minorca; execution of Byng; William Pitt 'the Great Commoner' made War Minister. Wolfe's expedition to Canada; capture of Quebec 1759; conquest of Canada. Hawke's victory over Quiberon.

French and English in India.—The English had forts and factories at Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta; the French had a settlement at Pondicherry; the rest of India was under native princes. Dupleix, the French governor, secured friendship of some native princes, and intrigued to expel the English. Arcot captured by British under Clive. Calcutta seized by Surajah Dowlah; the 'Black Hole' avenged at Plassey by Clive, 1757, and the foundation of our Indian Empire laid.

26. REIGN OF GEORGE III.

GEORGE III. (1760–1820), grandson of George II.

End of the Seven Years' War.—Pitt resigned office, and peace was made with France by the *Treaty of Paris*. England regained Minorca, and kept Canada.

Events which led to the American War.—Grenville, Prime Minister; Stamp Act passed, requiring Americans to pay for stamps on law papers, as we do in England now. The Americans refused to pay, and Grenville was obliged to resign office. Lord Rockingham, Premier; repeal of Stamp Act. Rockingham succeeded by Pitt now Earl of Chatham.

Chatham became seriously ill; during his absence duties were imposed on tea &c. going to America. Chatham advised the repeal of the duties, and was dismissed by king. Grafton and then Lord North succeeded. A cargo of tea shipped to Boston, thrown overboard by the colonists. The English Parliament then passed an Act forbidding ships to unload at Boston, and another declaring that Massachussetts should be ruled by men appointed by the king.

The American War of Independence.—Election of a Congress; George Washington appointed leader of the American forces. Stubborn fight, and defeat of Americans, at Bunker's Hill, near Boston. Americans issued *Declaration of Independence*, declaring they were a free nation and would submit to George no longer. New York seized and held till the end of the war. English, under General Burgoyne, forced to surrender at Saratoga. The French and then the Spaniards declared war against England, and helped the Americans. Surrender of English army under Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, 1781. Resignation of North, 1782. Rockingham Prime Minister, and after his death, Shelburne. A peace arranged, and signed at Paris, acknowledging independence of the United States, 1783. The defeat of the French and Spanish fleets by Lord Rodney, and the successful defence of Gibraltar, saved British interests in Europe and India.

27. REIGN OF GEORGE III. (*continued*) 1783-1789.

Ministerial Changes.—Shelburne was turned out of office through a quarrel with Charles James Fox, who voted with the Tories, and then formed with Lord North a **Coalition Ministry**. After a short time, the king dismissed the Coalition Ministry, and made William Pitt, son of Chatham, Prime Minister, though only twenty-four years old. He held the office from 1784 to 1801, and again from 1804 to 1806.

There was less corruption in Parliament than formerly, and people outside took more interest in politics.

Commercial Treaty with France.—Adam Smith's book, the 'Wealth of Nations,' had shown that regulations which restricted commercial intercourse were pernicious; Pitt made a treaty with France to lower duties so as to encourage trade and friendliness.

The Slave Trade.—The horrors of the slave trade having been revealed by Thomas Clarkson, Pitt and Wilberforce tried to induce Parliament to abolish it, but failed. Wilberforce and others continued the agitation, and the trade was abolished in 1807.

Improvements.—About this time, great improvements were made

in farming and the rearing of cattle; James Brindley constructed the Bridgwater Canal; Hargreaves invented the spinning-jenny, which Arkwright improved; and Crompton invented a still better spinning machine called the *mule*; Watt and others greatly improved the steam-engine, which led to the building of factories on the northern coal-fields.

28. REIGN OF GEORGE III. (*continued*) 1789-1802.

Causes of the French Revolution.—For a great many years the lower classes had been cruelly treated by Government and nobles, the Government taxed them unjustly,—the nobles plundered and ill-used them.

Its History: War declared.—(1) 'National Assembly' abolished payments by peasants to country gentlemen, and detained Louis XVI. a prisoner in Paris. (2) As Louis was found to be plotting with Prussia and Austria, a Republic was established and Louis executed. (3) Pitt tried to avert war, but the English were in a panic, the French were irritated by plots and invasion, and war broke out. (4) In France hundreds of persons suspected of favouring the enemy were executed; others fled the country. (5) In England and Scotland persons who spoke in favour of reforms were accused of sedition, and some were unjustly punished. (6) The French joined by Spaniards and Dutch.

Progress of War.—By land, French were everywhere victorious. At sea, Lord Howe defeated them in 'Battle of 1st June'; Admiral Jervis defeated Spaniards at St. Vincent (where Nelson won great renown); Admiral Duncan defeated Dutch at Camperdown; and Nelson the French at the Nile.

Meantime, British Fleets at Spithead and the Nore mutinied on account of ill-pay and ill-treatment, but returned to duty on promise of redress.

Irish Rebellion of 1798.—The Irish had long been cruelly treated, and though they had a separate Parliament, it did not represent the Irish people, since none but protestants could sit in it; and, until now, none but protestants had votes. George III. defeated Pitt's plans for redressing Irish grievances. At length the Irish rose in rebellion; great atrocities on both sides; rebellion suppressed with great severity. The members of the Irish Parliament were then bribed to vote for union with British Parliament, which accordingly took place.

War continued by England alone.—Admiral Parker, with Nelson, defeated the Danes at Copenhagen. Abercrombie won a great victory over the French army at Alexandria. The defeated troops returned to Europe, and a Peace was agreed to at Amiens, 1802.

29. REIGN OF GEORGE III. (continued) 1802-1808.

Renewal of War.—By *Peace of Amiens* England was to give up Malta; but Bonaparte seized part of Italy and sent troops into Switzerland, and then England refused to give up Malta. War renewed; 10,000 English travellers imprisoned in France; preparations to invade England. France joined by Spain.

Pitt, who had resigned in 1801, again made Prime Minister, 1804. Bonaparte, the 'Emperor Napoleon,' combined French and Spanish fleets for invasion of England; fleets destroyed by Nelson off Cape Trafalgar; death of Nelson, 1805. England saved from invasion.

Ministerial changes.—Death of Pitt; formation of 'Ministry of all the Talents' under Lord Grenville; abolition of slave trade, 1807; ministry dismissed by George for proposing to admit catholics to offices in the army and navy. The Portland ministry; Canning Foreign Secretary.

The War continued.—Scheme of Napoleon to use Danish fleet against England, foiled by the bombardment of Copenhagen and capture of Danish fleet by English.

30. REIGN OF GEORGE III. (continued) 1808-1820.

Napoleon seized Lisbon, and then compelled Charles IV., King of Spain, to surrender his crown. Napoleon gave it to his own brother Joseph.

Spain applied to England for help, which was given by Canning. Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, sent with English forces, defeated the French at Vimie'ro. Sir John Moore marched into Spain hoping to be joined by the Spaniards; was disappointed, and compelled to retreat; the French following, were defeated at Corun'na. Moore was killed during the battle. Wellesley's victory at Talave'ra, and retirement to the 'Lines of Torres Ve'dras' in Portugal. Failure of the French. Formation of 'gueril'las.'

Failure of the Walcheren expedition.

Wellington captured the two fortresses, Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, which opened his way into Spain. He defeated the French at Salaman'ca, and entered Madrid, but was obliged again to retreat to Portugal.

Russian Campaign.—Napoleon captured Moscow; the inhabitants set fire to the city; the French were compelled to retreat in the depth of winter. Out of 400,000 only 20,000 survived.

Wellington's victory at Vittoria, and capture of St. Sebastian.

Napoleon defeated at Leipzig by combined armies of Russia,

Prussia, and Austria, which then marched on Paris. Wellington invaded France on south, and won a victory at Toulouse. Paris was seized by the allies. Napoleon abdicated and was sent to Elba, and peace was signed at Paris, where Louis XVIII. became king.

Waterloo.—Within a year Napoleon escaped from Elba, returned to France, and was again made Emperor, 1815.

England and Prussia at once sent armies into the Netherlands. Napoleon defeated the Prussians under Blucher, and then attacked Wellington at Waterloo. The English defended themselves stubbornly; in the afternoon the Prussians arrived to help them; the French were routed; Napoleon was deposed and sent to St. Helena, a rocky island in the South Atlantic, where he died.

General Distress.—The war had involved very heavy taxation and left a debt of 800,000,000*l.* The country was impoverished; many manufacturers and farmers were ruined, and the labourers and artisans were almost starving. Hence there were riots and tumults, and demands for reform. The Manchester Massacre, and 'The Six Acts.' Death of George III., 1820.

31. REIGN OF GEORGE IV.

GEORGE IV. (1820–1830), eldest son of George III.

Cato Street Conspiracy.—The continued suffering, and the refusal of the Government to grant reforms, led Thistlewood and others to form a plot for killing the ministers. It was discovered and the leaders were executed.

Changes in the Government.—(Lord Liverpool, Premier.) George Canning became Foreign Secretary, and Sir Robert Peel, Home Secretary, 1822. *Canning*, without going to war, saved Portugal from the interference of Spain, and acknowledged the independence of Mexico, Peru, Chili, and other South American states. *Peel* carried some reforms in the criminal law, greatly reducing the number of crimes punishable with death. *Huskisson*, another minister, considerably reduced the customs duties levied on imports,—the first step towards *free trade*.

Catholic Association.—The catholics were still excluded from office. An association was formed under Daniel O'Connell to get this reformed.

Parliamentary Reform.—The urgent need for this seen by Lord John Russell, who proposed to take members from boroughs which had disappeared or become unimportant, and to give them to the great centres of trade which had been growing up lately; but he was for the present defeated.

Relief of Dissenters and Catholics.—Whilst the Duke of Wellington was Prime Minister, Lord John Russell succeeded in carrying a bill, which enabled dissenters to hold municipal or Government offices. At last, through fear of civil war in Ireland, similar relief was given to Catholics by the Catholic Emancipation Bill, 1829.

Improvements.—New Police introduced by Peel; improved system of road-making by Macadam; railways and locomotives by George Stephenson.

32. REIGN OF WILLIAM IV.

WILLIAM IV. (1830–1837), son of George III.

Reform Bill.—Wellington defeated and succeeded by Lord Grey. The first Reform Bill failed in the Commons; after a dissolution, a second was carried through the Commons by Lord John Russell, but rejected by the Lords; indignation of the country, riots and bloodshed; the king was at last frightened, and undertook to make new Peers to pass the bill through the Lords. The Lords then gave way, and the bill, being introduced a third time, passed in 1832. The bill disfranchised many small boroughs, and gave members to populous districts in counties, and to large towns.

Whigs now began to be known as *Liberals*, and Tories as *Conservatives*.

Other Reforms.—The reformed Parliament quickly abolished slavery in the British possessions, and paid the slave owners twenty million pounds as compensation. It also passed a new poor law, intended to check people living on the rates when they were able to work.

33. REIGN OF VICTORIA.

1837–1841.

VICTORIA (1837), daughter of Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III.

The People's Charter.—Great distress amongst lower classes, wages low, food dear. Corn Law placed a heavy duty on foreign corn imported,—this made bread dear. The *People's Charter* was a document intended to set forth the political changes necessary to bring about better times; those who accepted it were called *Chartists*. It demanded (1) Manhood Suffrage; (2) Equal Electoral Districts; (3) Vote by Ballot; (4) Annual Parliaments; (5) Abolition of Property Qualification for Members of Parliament; (6) Payment of Members. The third and the fifth of these have since been granted. Rowland Hill introduced penny postage, 1839.

The Eastern Question.—Turkey in a wretched condition; menaced by Russia in the north, attacked in Syria by Mehemet Ali, ruler of Egypt; Lord Palmerston persuaded Russia, Austria, and Prussia to join England in driving Mehemet out of Syria, which was done.

1841-1846.

The Afghan War.—Cause.—It was thought that the Russians, who had made advances in Central Asia, intended to invade India; and Dost Mahomed, the ruler of Afghan'istan', was friendly to them.

The British invaded Afghanistan, and occupied Cabul.

The country rose against the English, and compelled them to retreat to India. Out of 4,000 who left Cabul only one reached the English garrison at Jellalabad.

General Pollock advanced from Jellalabad to Cabul and recovered the British prisoners. Dost Mahomed restored.

The Anti-Corn-Law League established by Richard Cobden and John Bright. Its objects were to instruct the people in the evils of the corn laws, and to obtain Free Trade in corn.

Repeal of Corn Laws.—Hastened by the famine in Ireland which resulted from failure of the potato crop. Peel, though he had formerly supported the corn laws, carried their repeal; for which his followers deserted him; Lord John Russell became Premier.

1846-1856.

Popular Movements.—In 1848 most of the countries of Europe were disturbed by popular movements. The French got rid of their king, and established a Republic under the presidency of Louis Napoleon. In Italy, Austria, and Prussia, Parliaments were established. The Chartists in England again agitated for their six reforms; but the greater part of the working classes remained peaceable and orderly. After a time, Napoleon succeeded in suppressing the Republic and making himself Emperor; and in some other countries the Parliaments were abolished and the people's hopes crushed out.

The Crimean War.—The Emperor Nicholas of Russia wished the Christians in Turkey to be placed under his protection. Neither England nor Turkey would agree to this. Nicholas insisted, and Turkey, supported by England and France, declared war against Russia; destruction of Turkish fleet. Invasion of the Crimea. Battle of the Alma, and defeat of the Russians. Siege of Sebastopol, lasting a year; Russian attacks on English at Balaklava and Inkerman repulsed. Great sufferings of troops from want of food and shelter during the winter. Hospital founded at Scutari, and

placed under Miss Nightingale. Sebastopol taken; its fortifications destroyed. Peace concluded in the spring of 1856.

1857-1858.

THE INDIAN MUTINY.—The religion of the Hindoos teaches them that it is a sin to eat any part of a cow. A rifle (the Enfield) was introduced which required the use of greased cartridges. A report was circulated that the grease used was the fat of cows. Some native princes incited the people to rebellion. The Sepoys at Meerut murdered their English officers, massacred all the English they could find, and seizing Delhi, proclaimed a descendant of the Great Mogul emperor. Mutiny spread to Lucknow; garrison besieged; fearful massacre at Cawnpore. Relief of Lucknow by Havelock: his death; reconquest of Northern India by Sir Colin Campbell, commander-in-chief, and Sir Hugh Rose.

1858-1867.

England and France.—The English being alarmed as to the intentions of Napoleon, commenced in 1859 the formation of volunteer corps,—a movement which has steadily grown.

In 1860, Mr. Cobden, on behalf of the Government, arranged a *Commercial Treaty* with France, which greatly lowered the customs duties between the two countries, increased their trade, and promoted more friendly relations.

Civil War in America (1861) between the Northern (free) and Southern (slave-holding) States, caused by the desire of the latter to introduce slavery into new States further west. The Northern States having a navy were able to blockade Southern ports. But English merchants fitted out quick steamers to 'run the blockade,' carrying stores to the Confederates and bringing away cotton. The Confederates also got war-ships built in England, which preyed on the shipping of the United States. [For this England afterwards paid nearly 3,500,000*l.* damages.] In 1862 the Northern States decreed the abolition of slavery, and in 1865 the rebellion was crushed and the Union restored.

Cotton Famine.—The scarcity of cotton during the war caused what is known as the 'Cotton Famine.' Many thousands of operatives in Lancashire were thrown out of work for a long time, and suffered very great hardships with wonderful patience.

1867-1901.

REFORMS IN IRELAND.—The *Fenian* movement for the independence of Ireland; armed insurrection soon put down. Mr. Gladstone (now Premier) tried to remove Irish grievances,—

disestablished the Irish Protestant Episcopal Church, depriving it and the Catholic and Presbyterian churches of State endowments, and putting them on same footing; passed a **Land Act** to improve the relations between landlords and tenants.

REFORMS IN ENGLAND.—**Education Act** establishing School Boards, and authorising them to levy rates for building and supporting schools, and to draw up by-laws to enforce the attendance of children.

Ballot Act, providing that at municipal and parliamentary elections votes should be given in such a way that none but the voter need know how he had voted.

Third Reform Bill.—Before the second Gladstone ministry left office a third reform bill was passed, which gave votes to the working men in the country as well as in the towns, and which increased the number of members for populous places.

Franco-German War.—The Prussian victories over Austria roused the jealousy of France and led to a great war. The French were totally defeated, the Emperor and his armies were captured, and, after a terrible siege, Paris was occupied by the Germans. At the peace France gave up Alsace and part of Lorraine, and paid 200,000,000*l.* The war led to the unification of Germany (at the head of which William, King of Prussia, was placed, with the title of German Emperor), and the downfall of the Empire in France, where the Republic was re-established. Louis Napoleon died in exile in England.

Russo-Turkish War caused by the atrocities perpetrated on the Christian inhabitants of Turkey. The Turks, after a struggle which lasted about a year, were totally defeated.

The Treaty of Berlin.—A conference of the European Powers was held at Berlin, and a treaty was drawn up, by which the territory of Montenegro was increased, Serbia and Roumania were freed from tribute to the Sultan, and Bulgaria was given a prince of its own choosing, and made into a separate state though tributary to Turkey.

War with the Zulus in South Africa. After several British reverses the Zulus were beaten, and their country divided amongst several chiefs and ultimately put under British rule.

From 1874 to 1880 we had a Conservative government under Mr. Disraeli (Earl Beaconsfield); but the general election of 1880 restored Mr. Gladstone to office.

Home Rule Bill.—In 1886 Mr. Gladstone proposed that the Irish should have a Parliament of their own at Dublin, and not send members to Westminster. Some Liberals joined the

Conservatives, and the Bill was thrown out. A new Home Rule Bill in 1892 passed the Commons, but was thrown out by the House of Lords.

Mr. Gladstone resigned in 1894 and died in 1898. Lord Rosebery became Premier in 1894, but did not actively forward Home Rule.

Lord Salisbury Prime Minister.—The general election of 1895 gave a majority against Home Rule.

War in the Soudan.—Egypt proper was happy and prosperous, but the southern part was ruled by the fanatical followers of the Mahdi. After long preparation, an English and Egyptian force under Sir H. Kitchener crushed the Mahdi's successor (the Khalifa) at Omdurman and captured Khartoum. There is now peace and prosperity in the Soudan.

The Boer War.—In 1886, owing to discoveries of gold, many foreigners went to the Transvaal. They were taxed, but had no share in governing the country. Their discontent led to Dr. Jameson's invasion of the Transvaal in 1895. He failed and was punished. Ill will increased and war broke out. The Transvaal and Orange Free State joined forces and invaded Natal and Cape Colony. Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking were besieged.

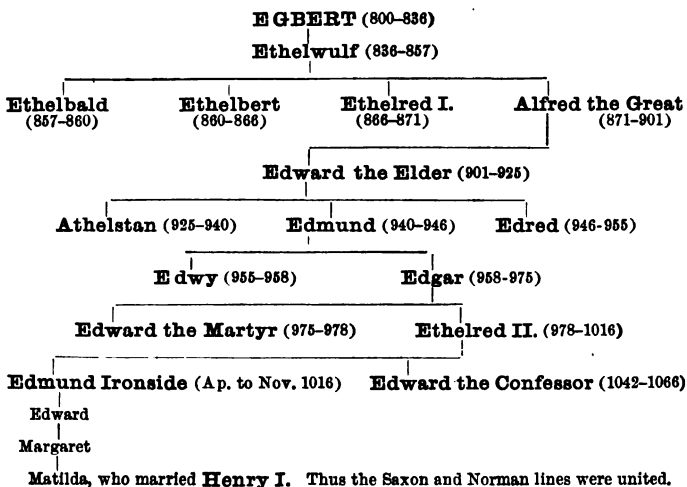
At first the British forces were unsuccessful; but early in 1900 Lord Roberts captured a Boer army under Cronje, the besieged towns were relieved, and the two Republics declared to be British territory. Towards the end of 1900 Lord Roberts returned to England, leaving Lord Kitchener in command. The tedious guerilla warfare which followed was brought to an end by the peace made in May, 1902.

The Death of Queen Victoria.—The war clouded the last years of our beloved Queen; a sudden illness seized her, and she was taken from us in January, 1901. Her eldest son, the Prince of Wales, succeeded to the throne, taking the title of Edward VII.

Australian Federation.—In 1901 the various Australian Colonies were united into one Commonwealth. The Jubilee celebrations of 1887 and 1897 and the help given by the colonies in South Africa had all helped to strengthen the growing feeling of brotherhood.

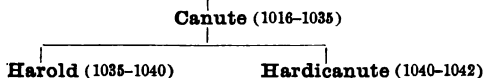
GENEALOGICAL TABLES.

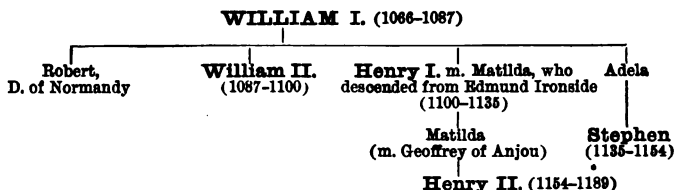
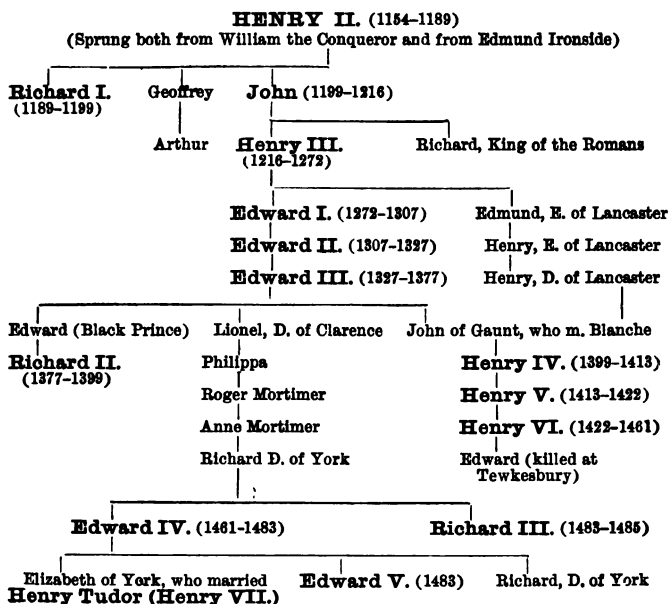
SAXON KINGS.



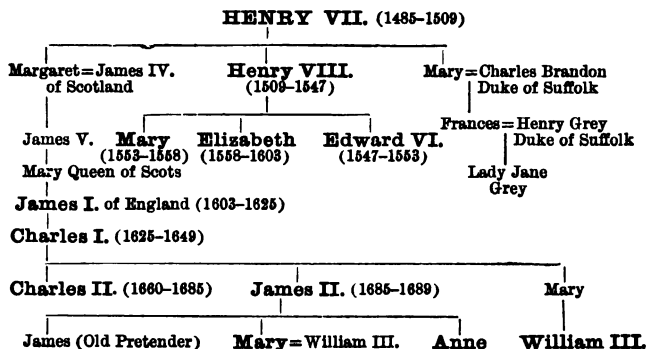
DANISH KINGS.

SWEYN or SWEGEN

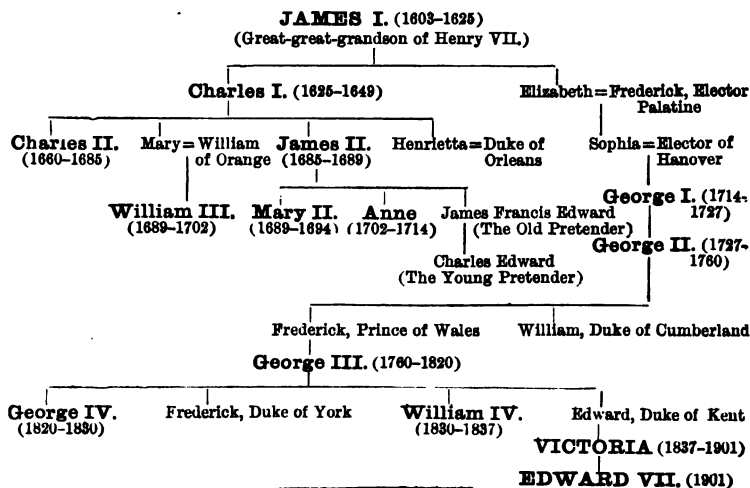


NORMAN LINE.**ANGEVIN, OR PLANTAGENET LINE.**

TUDORS AND STUARTS.



THE HOUSES OF STUART AND HANOVER.



SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.

SAXON KINGS.

Egbert	800-836
Ethelwulf	836-857
Ethelbald	857-860
Ethelbert	860-866
Ethelred I.	866-871
Alfred	871-901
Edward the Elder	901-925
Athelstan	925-940
Edmund	940-946
Edred	946-955
Edwy	955-958
Edgar	958-975
Edward the Martyr	975-978
Ethelred II.	978-1016

DANISH KINGS.

Canute	1016-1035
Harold	1035-1040
Hardicanute	1040-1042

SAXON KINGS.

Edward the Confessor	1042-1066
Harold	1066

NORMAN LINE.

William I. 'The Conqueror'	1066-1087
William II. second son of William I.	1087-1100
Henry I. third son of William I.	1100-1135
Stephen, son of Adela, daughter of William I.	1135-1154

ANGEVIN, OR PLANTAGENET LINE.

Henry II. grandson of Henry I.	1154-1189
Richard I. son of Henry II.	1189-1199
John, son of Henry II.	1199-1216

Henry III. son of John	1216-1272
Edward I. son of Henry III.	1272-1307
Edward II. son of Edward I.	1307-1327
Edward III. son of Edward II.	1327-1377
Richard II. grandson of Edward III.	1377-1399

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV. grandson of Edward III.	1399-1413
Henry V. son of Henry IV.	1413-1422
Henry VI. son of Henry V.	1422-1461

HOUSE OF YORK.

Edward IV. son of Richard, Duke of York	1461-1483
Edward V. son of Edward IV.	1483
Richard III. brother of Edward IV.	1483-5

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

Henry VII. descended from John of Gaunt	1485-1509
Henry VIII. son of Henry VII.	1509-1547
Edward VI. son of Henry VIII.	1547-1553
Mary, daughter of Henry VIII.	1553-1558
Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII.	1558-1603

HOUSE OF STUART.

James I. great-great-grandson of Henry VII.	1603-1625
Charles I. son of James I.	1625-1649
(The Commonwealth)	1649-1660
Charles II. son of Charles I.	1660-1685
James II. son of Charles I.	1685-1689
William III. and Mary II. daughter of James II.	1689-1694
William III. grandson of Charles I.	1694-1702
Anne, daughter of James II.	1702-1714

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

George I. great-grandson of James I.	1714-1727
George II. son of George I.	1727-1760
George III. grandson of George II.	1760-1820
George IV. son of George III.	1820-1830
William IV. son of George III.	1830-1837
Victoria, granddaughter of George III.	1837-1901
Edward VII., son of Victoria.	1901

REFERENCE TABLE OF IMPORTANT DATES.

Caesar landed in Britain, B.C.	55
Claudius invaded Britain, A.D.	43
Boadicea defeated . . .	61
Romans left Britain . . .	410
Arrival of English about . .	449
Arrival of Augustine . . .	597
Egbert, King of Wessex . .	802
Treaty of Wedmore . . .	878
Canute, King of all Eng- land . . .	1016-1035
Edward the Confessor, King . . .	1042-1066
Battle of Senlac . . Oct.	1066
Doomsday-Book finished	1086
First Crusade (William II.)	1096
Charter of Liberties (Henry I.) . . .	1100
Battle of the Standard . .	1138
Constitutions of Clarendon	1164
Murder of Thomas Becket	1170
Conquest of Ireland . . .	1172
John a vassal of Rome . .	1213
The Great Charter . . .	1215

THE BARONS' WAR.

Battle of Lewes . . .	1264
Battle of Evesham . . .	1265
First admission of borough members to Parliament	1265
Conquest of Wales . . .	1282
Temporary Conquest of Scotland . . .	1296
Confirmation of Charters (Edward I.) . . .	1297

Battle of Bannockburn . .	1314
Cloth-weaving at Norwich	1331

HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

(1337-1453).

Battle of Sluys . . .	1340
Battle of Crecy . . .	1346
Siege of Calais . . .	1347
Battle of Poitiers . . .	1356
Peasant Revolt (Wat Tyler)	1381
John Wyclif, Reformer	1324-1384
Geoffrey Chaucer, Poet	1328-1400
Battle of Shrewsbury . .	1403
Battle of Agincourt . . .	1415
Jack Cade's Insurrection .	1450
English expelled from France	1453

WARS OF THE ROSES

(1455-1485).

Battle of St. Albans . . .	1455
Battle of Wakefield . . .	1460
Battle of Mortimer's Cross	1461
Battle of St. Albans . . .	1461
Battle of Towton . . .	1461
Battle of Barnet . . .	1471
Battle of Tewkesbury . .	1471
Battle of Bosworth . . .	1485

REFERENCE TABLE OF IMPORTANT DATES 263

<i>Printing introduced by Caxton</i>	1476	<i>Strafford executed</i>	1641
<i>Richard III. killed at the Battle of Bosworth Field</i>	1485	<i>Coffee introduced</i>	1641
<i>Cape of Good Hope discovered</i>	1486	CIVIL WAR	1642-1651
<i>America discovered (Columbus)</i>	1492	<i>Battle of Edgehill</i>	1642
<i>Henry VIII. divorces Catherine</i>	1538	<i>Skirmish of Chalgrove Field</i>	1643
<i>Act of Supremacy (Henry VIII.)</i>	1534	<i>Battle of Newbury</i>	1643
<i>Monasteries dissolved</i>	1536-1539	<i>Battle of Marston Moor</i>	1644
<i>Statute of Six Articles</i>	1539	<i>Battle of Naseby</i>	1645
<i>Pins introduced</i>	1540	<i>Charles beheaded</i>	1649
<i>Telescopes invented about</i>	1549	<i>Battle of Dunbar</i>	1650
<i>Coaches introduced</i>	1553	<i>Battle of Worcester</i>	1651
<i>Reconciliation with Rome</i>	1554	<i>Barometer invented</i>	1643
<i>Calais taken by the French</i>	1558	<i>Commonwealth and Protectorate</i>	1649-60
<i>Act of Supremacy (Elizabeth)</i>	1559	<i>Jamaica taken</i>	1655
<i>Needles introduced</i>	1566	<i>Restoration</i>	1660
<i>Pocket Watches introduced</i>	1577	<i>Great Plague</i>	1665
<i>Potatoes and tobacco about</i>	1586	<i>Great Fire</i>	1666
<i>Spanish Armada defeated</i>	1588	<i>Tea came into use</i>	1666
<i>Stocking Frame invented</i>	1589	<i>Habeas Corpus Act</i>	1679
<i>Paper Mills erected</i>	1590	<i>Trial of the Seven Bishops</i>	1688
<i>East India Company established</i>	1600	<i>Revolution</i>	1688
<i>Union of England and Scotland</i>	1603	<i>The Crown offered to William and Mary</i>	1689
<i>Hampton Court Conference</i>	1604	<i>The Toleration Act</i>	1689
<i>Silk manufacture introduced</i>	1604	<i>Battle of Killiecrankie</i>	1689
<i>Cape Horn discovered</i>	1616	<i>Battle of the Boyne</i>	1690
<i>Circulation of blood discovered</i>	1619	<i>Peace of Ryswick</i>	1697
<i>First Weekly Paper published</i>	1622	<i>Act of Settlement</i>	1701
<i>Hackney Coaches used</i>	1625	<i>Act of Union with Scotland</i>	1707
<i>Petition of Right (Charles I.)</i>	1628	War of Spanish Succession	1702-18
<i>Hampden's Ship-money case</i>	1637	<i>Gibraltar taken</i>	1704
<i>The Long Parliament</i>	1640-53	<i>Battle of Blenheim</i>	1704
		<i>Battle of Ramillies</i>	1706
		<i>Battle of Oudenarde</i>	1708
		<i>Battle of Malplaquet</i>	1709
		<i>Peace of Utrecht</i>	1713
		<i>First Jacobite Rebellion</i>	1715
		<i>South Sea Bubble</i>	1720
		<i>2nd Jacobite Rebellion</i>	1745
		<i>Battle of Plassey</i>	1757
		<i>Capture of Quebec</i>	1759
		<i>American War began</i>	1775

264 *HISTORY OF ENGLAND TREATED POLITICALLY*

American Declaration of Independence	1776	Second Reform Bill	1867-68
End of the American War	1783	Suez Canal opened	1869
French Revolution	1789	Irish Church Disestablished	1869
War between England and France	1793	First Irish Land Act	1870
Battle of Trafalgar	1805	Education Act	1870
Peninsular War	1808-14	Ballot Act	1872
Battle of Waterloo	1815	Ashantee War	1874
Catholic Emancipation	1829	Second Irish Land Act	1881
Reform Bill	1832	Third Reform Bill	1884
Abolition of Slavery	1833	Home Rule	1886
Repeal of Corn Laws	1846	Soudan War	1898
Crimean War	1854-56	Boer War	1899
The Indian Mutiny	1857	Death of Queen Victoria	1901
		Australian Federation	1901

LF

08
69

39
70
0
2

4

1

6

**This book is under no circumstances to be
taken from the Building**

[illegible]

BRENTANO'S
Booksellers & Stationers
New York.

